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ART. I.—REAL ESTATE LOAN IN THE UNITED STATES.

Macaulay, in one of the most interesting chapters of the History of England, tracing out the origin of the national debt, makes a brilliant eulogy of the creation of the debt, which he considers as having largely contributed to the greatness and prosperity of Great Britain. The evident partiality of the historian for his hero, George III., who imported from Holland, the system of public loans, has lead him to exaggerate the general advantages of a public debt, justifying its increasing enormity by the facility with which the interest has always been paid. But there is a great deal of truth in what he says of the effects of the creation of the national debt upon the circulation of riches. Labor is necessarily productive, and when a high degree of civilization permits and encourages its development, production usually exceeds consumption under given circumstances. This annual excess of production is added as capital to the previous capital which served to produce it, and the capital always increasing in geometrical ratio, increases constantly the means of labor and the field of operation. But the regular progress of capital may often be interrupted by its too great accumulation at any one time, as, when the productions of labor have increased too rapidly to permit its useful employment. Then, labor diminishes, there being no demand for capital, it remains inactive. To bring it into activity, new projects are started. Their success encourages more adventurous enterprises, which may, in consequence of the abundance of capital, succeed also. The inordinate desire of employing idle capital actively, induces extravagance, when disappointments are experienced, and sometimes the capital itself is lost, by the too great ambition to avail itself of the new enterprises and combinations. Embarrassments

occur, expected dividends vanish, alarm is propagated, then comes a crisis, causing general ruin. Such had been the situation of England at the end of the 17th century. Land was at a high price and of difficult acquisition: the maritime war exposed to many dangers loans on bottomry and shipping: the building of houses met with no encouragement on account of the slow increase of population; the great associations were few in number, and the shares remained in the hands of the partners; there was no encouragement to manufactures; agriculture, although imperfect, did not need improvement to be equal to the wants of the people for food. Capitalists were embarrassed to know how to employ their spare means. In the space of four years these were mostly lost in mad schemes and ventures. When the crisis was passed, and capital began again to accumulate, the people being enlightened by past experience, capitalists sought for some plan that would give security to loans. It was found in the national debt. Macaulay demonstrates that the debt became a necessity for every one; for the government who wanted money, and could not wait to get it from an increase of taxes; it was necessary to have it to sustain the threatened independence of the nation; for the capitalists who sought in vain for another sure investment.

At first, only one million sterling was demanded; it was quickly taken up: this was the first million; but the advantages appeared so great to both the borrower and lenders, that twenty years later, after the time of the peace of Utrecht, the government had contracted a debt of fifty millions. It was known that the war had absorbed these enormous riches; but what mattered it, if the interest was paid punctually, there were none to complain; the investment was good, and by a seeming anomaly, the greater the amount of capital required and consequently destroyed, the greater was the facility to find loans on the market of the public funds, represented by the bonds, which circulated in numerous hands. These advantages, well ascertained by experience, were the lucky circumstances that established the success of the system of loans, which in 1815 had risen to 28 Billions of francs, and are yet at this day 19 Billions; and yet, it may be asked, where lies the guaranty for that sum, of which the interest alone amounts to 27½ millions sterling, amounting annually to 42 per cent. of the English budget, and which is almost equal to the rent roll of the country, estimated at 30 millions? The guaranty lies in the prosperity and riches of the country, all the time being developed; it lies in the good faith of the nation; in the very interest of the country to pay punctually in order to enjoy credit. These are great guaranties, and it may be said that they are sufficient. But, in such agitated times as the present, with the revolutions, and wars, and the formidable

standing armies of Europe, which are a perpetual threat against civilized countries, these guaranties, as solid as they may appear, may become precarious and be annihilated.

However this may be, one fact may be deduced from the history of the national debt: that capital will always seek the best investment, the sure payment of the interest, and the negociability of the bonds or certificates representing the capital. Even if history did not show it, custom would demonstrate it as well as the nature of things. Some allowance must be made for speculation, but not as great as might be thought; it is the agitated surface of a sea which is calm at the bottom; it comprehends every thing that may be desired; the security for the public funds is no doubt good, but it is not perfect because they may be disturbed by certain events, by exchange speculations they are liable to fluctuations in value of which speculators take advantage and avail themselves, and of which capitalists are often the victims.

These manœuvres are artfully combined by speculators and which cause a fall on the market, perhaps at the very moment when holders of bonds are under the necessity of realising. Being obliged to sell, their capital is diminished to the amount of the loss experienced. No one desires to lose.

It is this circumstance which has given such a value to Rail Road Stocks. Upon these, fluctuations are of rare occurrence; there is an almost certainty of realising cost upon selling. These obligations bear first mortgage upon the Rail Road, and are consequently well secured; and as said by Mr. Cieskowski, one of our celebrated political economists, true credit is based on hypothecations and not on hypothesis.

Certainly Rail Road Stocks are a good form of debts secured by mortgage: they offer a good security because they have a preference on the revenues over the rights of proprietors, and it may be taken as granted that the revenues always exceed the amount required to be paid on their obligations.

But there is a much better security: it is the ground; land, (the source of all capital, the supreme basis of all credit), ever since ownership of land has been known and established, loans have always been made on land, and it may be said that in all time, land, if not the only, was at least the most important guaranty of loans: but it is easy to perceive what were the difficulties with which these transactions were attended, how they were clogged, and the charges to which they were subject. On another hand, what were the real service or usefulness derived from these loans? The capital which is lent upon land becomes in a great measure a fixture, is incorporated with the land, and can only be reproduced as an annual income or an augmentation in value of the soil itself. But the increase in revenue is not sufficient to refund the capital

when the payment arrives. Unfavorable seasons, want of demand in the markets, render the situation of proprietors precarious, who may not be able to pay more than the interest, without having the means of refunding the capital.

This causes embarrassments, renders renewals necessary, and leads to expropriation and ruin. Reform in the mortgage laws could remedy but partially this state of things.

If the laws were less rigorous it would encourage loans, but if no remedy is introduced to relieve the borrower from their ruinous mode of operation, it would be an inducement leading to the mortgaging of the whole of the soil. Louisiana offers an example of this, and the great capitalists of Basle have also felt the effect of it, for a considerable portion of the Alsatian country belongs to them, the possessors being only the apparent owners. Some political economists, struck with the serious impediments of the hypothecary loans between individuals, are of the opinion, that in cases where the proprietors have not the means to develop the agricultural productions of which their property is susceptible, it would be better for them to sell a portion of the property: that it would be a better policy for them to obtain thus the means of working than to hypothecate the whole property for the capital which they require. But this system would have a tendency to increase the subdivision of property, which has been proven to have a bad effect. How then, does it happen that the soil, which is the best of securities, cannot become an object of credit as well as other things which do not offer the same safety to lenders?

At various times real estate Banks have been imagined, to mobilize the soil, and put its value in a circulating form.

But most of these Banks were established on a defective plan. It was attempted to do for the soil what is done for industrial pursuits, without taking into consideration the marked difference between the rapid products of industrial or manufacturing pursuits, and the slow products of agriculture.

The loans made for industrial pursuits, are rapidly changed into merchandise of which the sale enables the borrower to repay the capital, to which is added the profits. When the term of payment is expired the reimbursement can be made. Whilst all capital loaned for agriculture goes into the ground, and can be produced only as annual revenue. The sum of these revenues will, it is true, in time represent the capital, but they do not at any time equal the amount of the loans. If these real estate Banks lent capital to a proprietor in the form of notes, these were soon returned, and had no circulation, whilst on the contrary, the Banks of circulation had their paper all the time circulating. The obtaining of this advantage was found to be possible on the system of the "Real

Estate Loan Companies" (credit foncier), when it was perceived, that the soil was the most solid basis of credit. The seven years war which ruined the country of Silesia, was in a manner the starting point for the establishment of these institutions. The proprietors were overloaded with debt, they were very poor, and contracted loans on mortgage, on the most onerous conditions. Following this war (1756 to 1763), real estate was in a most lamentable condition, farms had been ravaged, and the population greatly diminished.

The proprietors thus overloaded with debt had obtained from the government the enactment of stay laws to the extent of three years. This was but a palliative to evils that required more stringent measures, for interest had risen to ten per cent. and upwards, and costs, and commissions to 4 or 5 per cent. The hypothecary loans under such onerous conditions could not be refunded, and the capital of the creditor was put in jeopardy. This situation suggested the idea to an eminent merchant of Berlin, Mr Burhing, of restoring the credit of property by substituting, through the means of a company, the collective responsibility of all, in place of that of individuals, with the guaranty of mortgage. Such was the origin of the first establishment of the Real Estate Loan Companies, (credit foncier) founded in Silesia in 1770. It was at first imperfect, but progressively improved and perfected, and finally by the introduction of its most important feature, loans upon long terms of credit, with extinction of the debt by the payment of annuities. It was 1790, twenty years later, and after the introduction of the system in Silesia, that this important improvement was adopted. Some years previous, a certain Dr. Rice, had made the system popular in England, and Minister Pitt, employed it later, and applied it to the payment of the national debt. George III, King of Hanover and England, adopted the system of Dr Rice, and applied it to the Real Estate Loan, (credit foncier). Thus he established at Celles the first institution established on the system of extinction of the debt by small annual payments, instead of the refunding of the capital in one payment. It was the crowning and completion of the system. That of Burhing was applied in Brandenburg in 1777, in Pomevania in 1781, in Hamburg in 1782, in western Prussia in 1787. All these institutions adopted the felicitous system of annuities; Bavaria, Hanover, Saxony, Holland, Belgium, Switzerland and France only in 1852, have established institutions on the same basis, of the extinction of the debt, by the payment of small sums annually. Since one hundred years, these institutions have inspired a full and legitimate confidence; none have ever failed in their engagements! Never have any of them given the least cause for alarm or suspicion. Their solid operations based on Real

Estate have always been exempted from the effects of any crisis or revolutions. Their circulation in Europe has now reached the enormous amount of three Billions of francs ! this circulation consists of the pledge obligations, (*lettres de gage*). We give the definition of the pledge obligation, or hypothecary obligation, by going into some practical details. The Real Estate or agricultural loan company resembles the industrial companies in a general way; it imparts to a fixed capital, the soil, the qualities of a circulating medium; it renders the soil or its value moveable, which must not be confounded with the subdivision of property. It facilitates loans called for by proprietors; it exempts these from perils of loans contracted for a short period; it imposes upon them a lower rate of interest on the money borrowed, and thus permits of the improvement of the soil, by the action of active capital. The instruments of the Real Estate Loan, are the mortgage Banks also called the Real Estate Banks. The way in which they operates as follows: a proprietor wishing to obtain a loan makes application to the Bank, in favor of which he mortgages the whole or part of his property, according to the amount which he desires to have, the title must be clear, and the property free from any previous mortgage; the amount loaned must as a general rule, not exceed 50 per cent. of the real value. The administrators of the Bank, examine scrupulously the titles to the property, and according to given and well known rules, determine precisely the value of the property. Being enlightened on these two essential points the Bank fixes, by an authentic act, the amount which it thinks it can safely lend, and of which the reimbursement is to be made by annuities payable semi-monthly, (interest and sinking fund), she causes the mortgage to be registered in due form, then delivers to the borrower its obligations for a corresponding amount, these obligations are the pledged obligations (*lettres de gage*), bearing interest at 3, 4, 4½ or 5 per cent., and payable in coin, at the office of the Bank, at fixed dates, in accordance with the time for which the loan is made. It is usual for the borrower to call upon the Bank itself, for the discounting of these obligations at a rate agreed upon beforehand. This measure is taken in the interest of the obligations previously issued: it is essential to maintain them at a regular rate, and as high a one as possible. Some establishments prefer that their obligations should pass into strong hands, in order to avoid fluctuations on change. To resume: the mortgage Bank, on the one hand lends on mortgage, with the express condition, that the loan shall be payable in annuities, and on the other, it emits its obligations for an amount corresponding exactly to the amount of the loan. When these obligations are put into circulation, the Bank is bound to pay the interest to the holders, and

to refund the capital to the holders, (the annuity comprises the interest and sinking fund), and this amount the Bank receives from the borrower. The pledge obligation can now be clearly understood; it is the representative of the property, which has been made moveable or susceptible of circulation; it bears the same relation to property that commercial paper does to merchandise; it is credit in its reality and power; the Bank is its intermediary. What it lends to each proprietor, is the credit of his property, under the form of a pledged mortgage obligation, (*lettre de gage*); and the annuity dependent upon it is exempt from the daily variations of public funds. The pledged obligation is the instrument of the credit then to real estate; it enjoys the same guaranty as the loan on mortgage, of which it is the representative subdivided. If, on the one hand, it does not enjoy the advantage of a special mortgage, on the other it has the immense advantage of being guaranteed by the whole mass of property mortgaged, in favor of the Bank, which has emitted it; it is the collective instead of the individual pledge. Having the signature of a Bank, which is a rich and powerful association of capitalists, it is the equivalent of the contract of loan divided, and signed also by the borrower. It renders the contract of hypothecary loan, moveable by detaching from the individual debtor, and substituting to him the collective obligation centered in the Bank.—It is the subdivided value of the mortgage loan, and becomes thus a species of circulation of the Real Estate Loan Company, a value distinct from the pledge of any certain piece of property, and transmissible from hand to hand, or by endorsement. From being originally fixed as Real Estate Loans they become moveable and circulating by means of the credit of the Bank which emitted it, but without losing any of the advantages of a mortgage loan, and without the defects natural to simple obligations. The pledged loan certificate unites then all the advantages of the mortgage loan and those of a Bank note; just as the Bank note it is a means of credit, a simple and rapid circulating value; it may be made payable to bearer; it is guaranteed by a mortgage, and bears interest. There is great difference in the obligations now emitted by the various institutions. They are made payable either to order or to bearer; they are payable either with or without premium at par, at a date specified, or a date determined by drawing of a lottery.

Their capital is usually of 100, 500 or 1000 francs. The rate of the interest, payable at sight upon the coupons, differs in various countries; it varies from 3 to 5 per cent.

The amount of obligations emitted by a Bank, is always just equal to the amounts of loans on mortgage. It is inevitable it should be so, because the obligations issued, are only the subdivided amounts of the loan.

What are the advantages offered by the pledged loan certificates? what is sought by those who do not seek to *speculate* but merely to invest their funds?

It is not to be presumed that they have the pretension of requiring greater guaranties than the following: 1. A sure investment exempt from fluctuations, caused speculation, by a crisis, and accompanied by all moveable and immoveable sureties. 2. A good revenue of an immoveable value, equal, it not superior to that derived from the public funds, and at least equal to that derived from mortgage loans. 3. A regular and punctual payment of the interest, easy of collection, semi-annual, and payable at a fixed date. 4. The greatest facility for negotiation or transmission of the certificate of debt, and for its renewal. 5. The certainty of the reimbursement at par.

Let the obligations be examined attentively under these two last points of view.

A.

1. *Surety and safety of investment—enumeration of the guaranties.*

The safety of an investment depends evidently upon the guaranties offered to the Capitalist against the risk of loss in whole or in part of his Capital, in principal, interest, and accessories. The mortgage obligation is not a value of or for speculation; it is the subdivided representative of a real right.

Being reimbursable like the mortgage loan at par; at a fixed date, similar to a rent; payable like the Coupon of public funds; as solid as the immovable from which it depends, it is sought after for investments, especially by those whom taste, prudence, or wisdom, keep them aloof from speculations, but who do not disregard the progress of public credit. This forms the immense majority.

Those who own property have heretofore invested their gains in the acquisition of real estate, in loans on mortgage, and in the public funds.

We are bold to assert and shall give a demonstration of it that the pledged loan obligations equal in solidity and safety the best of investments of the other categories, and is superior to most of them. Let us examine first the exceptional guaranties with which they are accompanied, we shall afterwards compare them to all the other sorts of funds, reputed the best. We will ask of any practical man if it be possible or reasonable to desire any greater and more numerous guaranties than those above enumerated. 1. The mortgage contracts of which they are the representative value sub-divided on the mass of the properties in the name of and in favor of the Bank which emits them. 2. The examinations made by the adminis-

trators of the Banks, and the restrictions which it is their interest to make on the hypothecary loans asked. 3. The authentic proof that the obligations issued do not exceed in amount the Sums loaned on mortgage. 4. The organization of the Banks themselves.

Let a hasty examination be made of these various categories. 1. Supposing a crisis to occur, the holders of obligations will not have any greater cause to entertain apprehensions than if their funds were invested on an ordinary mortgage loan; for the most part, crisis have never endangered hypothecary guarantees. 2. The obligations being but the sub-divided representative value of a loan on mortgage executed before a notary, it is evident that they enjoy the same advantages as that contract. The Banks, as we have said, which emit them lends only on property exceeding in value the amount loaned from 75 to 50 per cent. at least, according to their nature. What better guaranty can there be than a first mortgage of a value at least double the amount loaned, and producing a durable and certain revenue? And again, as the debt is reimbursable by annuities, and as the mortgage cannot be divided the security augments in a ratio equal to the diminution of the obligations of the borrower. The Bank thus lends without any risks. It is well known to be different from ordinary mortgage loans made by individuals, because they are always reimbursable cash and in whole, and that, this form of loans is the most dangerous. 3. A Bank which makes hypothecary loans as a speciality offers certain guarantees of an intelligent administration; first, it will lend only on property which is known to have revenues of which the two-thirds are sufficient for the payment of the annuities. Thus it is only in exceptional cases that it will be obliged to have recourse to expropriations, sometimes ruinous for the capitalists, and always disastrous for the proprietors and borrowers. To all this may be added, the interdiction to lend on certain properties susceptible of destruction or exposed to be deprived of its revenues, such as Theatres, Foundries, Quarries, and all other Real Estate which do not yield a sure revenue, or which by their nature, their situation or other causes, cannot be immediately realised. Add to this, Insurance, which is obligatory for property exposed to fires or inundations, and inquire of capitalists in the habit of making loans on mortgage if they have ever taken as particular pains and as many precautions. 4. The obligations is guaranteed not only by the mortgage contracted at the time of its emission, upon the property of the borrower, but also by the immense mass of all the properties mortgaged or to be mortgaged to the Bank for the various loans made or to be made. As this vast mass of hypothecary guarantees increases every day in consequence of the payments made, no

man could seriously entertain the least uneasiness upon the solidity of the hypothecary obligations issued under circumstances calculated to give so much assurance! Such uneasiness would be the more unfounded as in virtue of the laws establishing the hypothecary Banks the amount of obligations to be issued can never exceed the amount of the loans made the preceding month. The execution of this inhibition is rigorous and in some establishments it is certified to by a notary *appointed to that effect; the same certificate must be annexed by this public officer to the obligations to be issued, and of course after due inspection of the registry of the mortgages.*

6. Besides, the strong organization of these Banks, administered and sustained by men of experience, with such punctuality, that none of them, since a century, have ever failed in their engagements; the propaganda which they enjoy through numerous and active agencies; the supervision exercised by special commissioners appointed by the general assembly of stockholders, whose responsibility is at stake; and the regularity of the operations of these institutions, altogether constitute a full guarantee. And again, the capital of these establishments, their large reserve, are responsible for all the operations and are sufficient to cover the amount of obligations issued.

B.

Comparison between the hypothecary obligations and all others modes of investment.

Every wise and prudent capitalist must know that a good investment should guarantee both the payment of the capital and of the interest. In this respect the obligation compares favorably with the best of investments, for it guarantees completely the payment of the capital and interest, whilst the public funds guarantee nothing more than the payment of the interest.

Let the hypothecary obligation be compared with other various funds reputed the best, and we shall find.

1. Hypothecary obligations and other funds of the same nature:

We shall certainly not attempt to depreciate the value of Real Estate upon which rests the excellence of the obligations. The soil, the first means of riches, and which nourishes nations it is and will always be the best investment of private fortunes. If, on the one hand, its acquisition costs relatively a high price, if it requires great labor and care for its development and utilization, if its revenue is small and variable: yet on the other hand, it offers advantages which no other sort of property does, as is shown by the laws and usages of every nation. The hypothecary obligations, which are the instruments of the Real Estate Loan Companies are the very perfec-

tion of property rendered movable. They suit precisely those who would invest in Real Estate without judgment, and experience loss; those who do not wish to purchase, or who would wish to invest their capital for accumulation until they are able to purchase land, these it suits to buy obligations; they yield in interest superior to the rent or revenue of land; they afford the same security for capital as land, and do not demand the trouble that is attendant on agricultural pursuits, nor the trouble of collection of rents.

2. Hypothecary obligations and mortgage contracts.

We have said that we would not depreciate or contest the solidity of warranty afforded by the soil, by hypothecation to secure the rights of the creditor, for it is on this solidity that the operations of the Bank rest. But can a capitalist himself and at all times judge of the capacity of the borrower; of the regularity of his titles; of the true and actual value of his property? In most cases it is impossible and he confides in the good faith of the debtor, or to the experience and zeal of an intermediary. If he lends with these dangers it is but too common that there is no punctuality in the payments. If he wishes to realize, with his inconvenient mortgage loan he must seek, and with difficulty find another capitalist, who will consent to accept the same guarantee and take his lieu and place. If he finds a purchaser it involves other costs.

There may be seen at every street corner, and in the newspapers a significant advertisement: *hypothecary loan for sale*. As a general rule the debtor only has the right to the benefit of a term of credit if he wants to pay in anticipation, the creditor has not this right unless it has been specially stipulated in the contract. When in consequence of the death of one of the parties, the succession of the deceased must be opened, hence innumerable embarrassments, when the payments or receipts must be divided among the heirs. When the day of payment comes it is rare that the payment is made punctually. It may be that the borrower, if he has made a long loan for ten, fifteen, or twenty years, has invested the funds in Real Estate, in rents, or otherwise, and if he has had no other resources he is unable to pay at maturity. Then, the creditor in his own interest, is exposed to delays and to make renewals. If he has recourse to expropriation he is launched into lawsuits, and delays of justice are proverbial, with all the difficulties attending proceedings in Courts; the debtor may, by quibbles of law, retard the sale for a long time.

If at last an adjudication is obtained, then comes another series of difficulties, with new delays for the distribution of the price; either because the rights of the Creditor were not sufficiently guaranteed, or an improper value was put upon the property, the investment which appeared to be good,

results in total or partial loss to the capitalist. Almost every one who lends money experiences these mishaps. What a difference with the obligation and the mortgage loan which we have described, which has none of these disadvantages, and enjoys advantages that were unknown in the old system of loans! However varied may be the obligations in their form they are in reality in all cases nothing more than mortgage loans payable to bearer, which are payable at a fixed date; mortgage loans provided with Coupons of interest payable semi-annually, rigorously at a certain date; mortgage loans payable to bearer, which have the attribute of being alienated without cost, just as a promissary note, or public funds, and transmissible from hand to hand. He who invests in obligations really makes a contract of mortgage, for the execution of which the Bank acts through its administrators. The consequences of this contract are, on the one hand, giving to the bearer a mortgage creditor by subrogation, the absolute certainty of the payment of the interest and capital without costs, in conformity with the stipulated obligations; on the other hand, leaving to the Bank all the disadvantages of the position of creditor with a mortgage, with all the difficulties, charges, and eventual loss. The obligations have then all advantages of a mortgage without its attendant inconveniences. The bearer of the obligation is exempted from the trouble of examining the property of his debtor, to ascertain its value, to inquire into the object of the loan, the Hypothecary Bank becomes his debtor. No one will contest that the Bank in this respect will act with better tact and judgment. The creditor, bearer of obligations, has no occasion to inquire into the value or situation of the property which is his guarantee, for all the mortgages in favor of the Bank are the warranty of the loan which he has made in taking the obligations. These mortgages besides, are not accepted with the carelessness with which they are taken by creditors by the old system, for the Bank watches closely to the interests of the partners, which are its own. The reimbursement by annuities dispenses with all the inconveniences of expropriations and distribution. And even if it was necessary to have recourse to them, it is no concern of the creditor who is thus dispensed with the disagreeable necessity of prosecuting a debtor.

The Bank cannot elude them. Not only the obligations have all the advantages of mortgage loans, but they also have exceptional advantages: the simplicity of the intervening contract, one single demand of title! The possibility of lending small sums on mortgage, twenty dollars or more. Thus the loans on mortgage represented by the obligations are accessible to all capacities and to all social conditions.

Almost any agricultural laborer may economise twenty dollar, and thus uniting the interest of the laborer to the institution and securing his gains is one of the great conceptions in political economy of the age.

3. The obligations and the Public funds.

The Public funds, the merits of which we shall examine for a general and comparative aspect, often furnish satisfactory modes of investment. It is not intended to make a criticism on one of the principal bases of the public fortune, and consequently one of the most usual forms of private fortunes. We propose simply to give a definition of the character of the present public funds, in order to show better the great advantage of the obligations. The greater part of the public funds represent a capital which has disappeared, absorbed by wars and revolutions, or endangered by unwise policy; this capital is seldom represented by real values, such as Canals and Rail Roads. The most solid warranty, and often the sole warranty of the holder of Public funds, lies in an abstract guaranty, purely negative, of the credit, of the nation. The dangerous abuses of such credit in our times are but too common. Contemporaneous history shows that often the Public Debt increases in a ratio not in accordance with the real guarantee which the debtor offers, because the increase of the debt is not always in proportion with the Public resources, and because the debtor discounts the future beyond his real credit.

In proportion as the debt increases are the chances diminished for the debtor to pay; not precisely because the nation has more interest to pay, but because it is obliged to increase the taxes, and thus diminish in the future the value of property, and consequently the Public credit. It is thus that the Public funds follow all the variations of Public Credit, on which does not depend entirely and necessarily private credit and especially the credit of private property. They are variable as politics. These fluctuations are especially dangerous when politics are controlled by power. In times of crisis the Public funds are subject to ruinous depreciations for the holders: in times of peace they produce but a low rate of interest to the purchasers, and holders cannot realise. Austria and Italy have just furnished an example of it. We do not pretend to apply this criticism to any particular species of public funds, but we have shown the exact character of these funds in general. None of these inconveniences are inherent to the obligations; they are represented by a capital which is visible and tangible, the Real Estate on which the capital has been loaned. War, revolutions, errors in politics, may affect temporarily political credit, they cannot shake the basis of hypothecary loans. States have disappeared from the Map,

but Real Estate has not. The guarantee of the obligations far from resting upon public credit, often an abstraction, and always variable as the human thought, is real, concrete, material and solid, and indestructible; it is the Soil. Their emission and increase is always in exact mathematical proportion with the amount of the guarantee since they are only the subdivided values of an hypothecary loan which can have existence but by the creation of a mortgage. The greater the amount of obligations, the greater the amount of guarantees. The principle of reimbursement by annuities keeps up this exact proportion. The obligations, exempt from all the inconveniences of public funds, have all their advantages.

II.

OF THE INCOME ON THE OBLIGATIONS.

As we have demonstrated it the hypothecary obligations are entitled to the first rank as funds. The interest they produce will bear comparison with the most solid. In France, in the month of March 1863, the obligations of 3 per cent. were quoted at 15 to 25 francs higher than the French funds. Thus can be accounted for the fact, that in all countries where the obligations have long been known, they are freely taken up for investments at 4, $3\frac{1}{2}$, and 3 per cent. when the public funds of those countries bore interest at 5, $4\frac{1}{2}$, and 4 per cent.

We lay it down as a rule, that the obligations at 4, and $4\frac{1}{2}$, per cent. bought at par, yield a better revenue than any of the public funds of Europe, bought at the market price, at a discount, that is for a sum less than their face. The following table will demonstrate it. It is made up from the quotations of the *Moniteur* of the 22d March 1863.

III.

OF THE REGULAR AND EASY COLLECTION OF INTEREST.

The interest on the obligations is payable semi-annually at maturity; the holder of the obligation detaches from it the coupon corresponding to that date and presents at the Bank. He has the right to receive and does receive immediately, against the exchange of his coupon, and without incurring any costs, the amount of the interest due.

IV.

OF THE FACILITY OF NEGOCIATION AND REALIZATION.

An advantage appreciated by Capitalists, especially in the case of obligations are due at a distant time, as 10, 20, 30, or 40 years, is the possibility of negotiating them with facility, and without cost. The obligations, payable to bearer, and

transmissible by simple tradition, are susceptible of a free circulation. Those, however, payable to order, must be transferred.

V.

CERTAINTY OF REIMBURSEMENT AT MATURITY.

If the bearer of titles instead of alienating, prefers to keep them until maturity, he may deposit them in Bank, and by pledge procure the money that he may want. Then at the time fixed for payment he is perfectly sure of receiving back his capital.

The conclusions to be drawn from the above demonstrations are evident, the obligation as a general rule is the most solid investment that can be made.

Of the course of exchange and value of obligations, since a Century.

Germany has been beforehand of other countries of a whole century in the creation of establishments of Real Estate Loan Companies. It is instructive to study and follow their course.

The obligations of the Prussian institutions, may be considered during the times of the greatest agitations and troubles: in 1808, after the battle of Jena, which it may be said, annihilated Prussia: in 1813, during the war against Napoleon: in 1815, after the fall of the French Empire, in 1839, after the conversion of the Prussian loan

The author from which we extract these references on statistical finance of the loan companies, divides the time in three periods, as follows.

1. Period of depreciation, during the war against the French Empire:

2. Period of rise, since the conclusion of peace, up to the time of the conversion in 1839:

3. Contemporaneous period:

During the first, the depreciation was less than that in the *rentes* and other public funds.

During the second period, the obligations were generally quoted above par.

The conversion in 1839, had little influence upon them.

After a slight fall, and a momentary one, they rallied and rose above par. The course in the contemporaneous period is also satisfactory.

During the revolution of 1848, all sorts of funds were considerably depreciated. The public funds of Prussia came down to 69; the Bank Stock, to 63; Rail Roads Stocks, still lower.

The obligations of Silesia, $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of Pomerania, and of Prussia, were maintained at an average of 90 $\frac{3}{4}$. In 1850, when the Prussian funds were at 86 $\frac{1}{2}$, and the Banks of Prussia, at 94, the obligations $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. were quoted 95 $\frac{3}{4}$. The Posen 4 per cent. reached 102, and the Mecklenburg 103, and were in demand at those rates, notwithstanding the competition of the loan of 70 Millions of Hamburg, contracted after the fire of 1842. Before the end of March, the obligations of Pomerania, rose to 110. These hypothecary obligations continued firm, and preserved their values during the crisis of 1859.

During the war of Italy, when all the public funds, especially in Germany, had fallen considerably, the obligations $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. were quoted 81.75 @ 85, and the 4 per cent. 89 @ 98.50.

We have accumulated a profusion of proofs, to show the solidity and indestructibility of the hypothecary obligation.

In every country in Europe, where these institutions have been established, property, both rural and urban has increased in value, through and by the means furnished by the hypothecary Banks. There is no reason, why such a beneficent institution, should not be acclimatized in the United States.

The wants are the same as those of Europe: Free labor everywhere prevails! No Sugar planter of Louisiana, but must candidly admit that free labor, at the present prices of products is more profitable, than slave labor was formerly.

Property in certain States and particularly in Louisiana is much encumbered, and the only relief lies in an exemption from the enormous charges, under which she suffers. If an hypothecary Bank should offer its services, it would be hailed with satisfaction, especially if it operated in accordance with the systems which have been consecrated and approved by experience, and the proper application be made to the wants of the country. The United States, more than any other country are in a situation, to give immense development to such an institution. The area of the United States comprising waters, lakes and rivers, is three and a quarter millions of square miles: that is, twice the area of the Roman Empire, of the times of Antonius. The area of the United States, if as thickly settled as England, would equal the population of the whole world. According to the census of 1860, the value of taxed property, in the United States amounted to for Real Estate, \$8,000,000,000 (eight thousand millions), for personal property \$6,000,000,000 (six thousand millions), total fourteen thousand millions. It showed an augmentation over the census of 1850, of 125 per cent. The average of property per head, was, in 1860, six hundred and six dollars. Showing an increase over 1850, of 68 per cent. In some of the Western States, the augmentation is very remarkable: In Iowa, it

was in the proportion of 900 per cent. and the absolute increase was more than \$250,000,000. In the old State of Pennsylvania, property increased 96 per cent. and the absolute amount in proportion. The most striking proof of the public, and general prosperity, is the gradual and serious expansion of industrial establishments, throughout the whole extent of the country. A system of liberal legislation has afforded the means of progress, which has given rise to the creation of cities, as it were by enchantment: is has in the immigration from cities of the old States, and from foreign countries, by offering the chance to acquire a homestead and Real Estate, both urban and rural, at such advantageous conditions as to make the price of the same almost nominal. This system was founded by the illustrious Statesmen of the American Revolution, and sanctioned by experience, it has grown and taken strength, satisfying the wants of millions of emigrants.

The operation of this system, has not been restricted to opening for culture, an immense amount of rich lands, to donations for school purposes, by allotting townships; to the creation of universities; but it has also contributed on a large scale for internal improvements, reclaiming lands, covering the continent with Rail Roads, digging canals, and improving rivers. If to these extraordinary resources be joined, sound principles of political economy, we will be so bold as to say that no people shall have ever attained to such a degree of prosperity, as may reasonably be anticipated. The war has no doubt interfered seriously with the interests and prosperity of the South, but the war has not in the least affected its rich and incomparable soil, it is still under our feet: war cannot annihilate it, it is ready to yield as abundant harvests as for the past, on condition that we but cultivate it. To do this easily and surely, the Real Estate Loan Company, can furnish the means by long loans, with sinking fund, on the principle of annuities, extinguishing the debt slowly and gradually. The advantage of the system, consists in this, that by the payment of a small sum annually, during the period stipulated for the loan, in the form of coupons of interest, payable at the Bank, the debtor reproduces the capital, and the debt is extinguished. These small sums paid to the Bank by the borrower, are invested in a productive manner, and always held in readiness for the payment of the obligations as they become due. Thus, the extinguishment of each loan has the effect of withdrawing from circulation, an equivalent amount of obligations; and by the capitalisation of the fractional sums of the annuities, the borrower pays his debt gradually in the space of 10 to 60 years, the maximum time; and during this time he is free from any charge, but the regular payment of the annuity, which prevents the diminu-

tion of the hypothecary warranty. Experience has shown in the disasters proceeding from hypothecary loans of the ordinary kind, that the new system offers the advantage by the payment of interest and sinking fund in small sums, not to exceed the capabilities of the borrower. Experience has shown also, that the security offered by long terms of credit inspire courage and confidence in the debtor, improves his credit, and increases the value of Real Estate by the care, attention and improvements bestowed upon it, and relieves the debtor from apprehension on his future position. Under the old system, the borrower pays interest during 10, 15, 20, 30 or 50 years, at 5 per cent., on a capital of \$10 000: he pays each year \$500, but during these 50 years, he will have paid with accumulated interest, the sum of \$28 984, and 10 cents, that is to say, nearly three times the capital, and will still owe the capital of \$10 000, which together amount to \$38. 984, and 10 cents, which he will have paid to satisfy the debt.

By the new system with annuities, in the same space of 50 years, at 5 per cent. interest, he will satisfy the debt by paying an invariable annuity of \$596 and 23 cents, including the $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. annual commission, and he will have paid the sum of \$29,811 and 50 cents, that is to say, \$9,172 and 60 cents less by this latter mode of payment. What constitutes this difference is that interest each year is calculated only on the balance of the capital due, and as the annuity is invariable the sinking fund is increased in the same ratio that the interest diminishes: thus, the debtor of the \$10 000, as above pays the first year, \$500, at the end of ten years \$473.22, at the end of twenty years, \$42,659; at the end of the thirtieth \$350.18; at the end of the fortieth \$22,498; and the fiftieth \$19.82; so that as the interest diminishes, so is the sinking fund increased, and the capital diminished.

An hypothecary Bank is simply an intermediary between the capitalist and the borrower; the administrators give to the latter the titles, or obligations which represent the value of his real estate, to which is added the credit of the association. The capital of such a Bank is restricted, but the credit due to Real Estate is unlimited. The institution of France, with a capital of 60,000,000 francs, (\$12,000,000), of which there is really paid in but one half, has, however, issued one thousand five hundred millions of obligations into circulation. We purposely call it circulation, because the obligations are taken on the market, with such confidence and facility and are so much sought after, that they may be considered as bank notes payable at a fixed date with interest. In the United States the progress to be realized is that the obligation issued be a bank note of a mortgage bank, bearing interest and payable at a fixed date, in specie.

Interest of Obligations compared with the Interest on the best Public Funds in Europe, as quoted on 'Change, March 22, 1863:

PUBLIC FUNDS.	Nominal Interest, p. 100.	Quotation.....	Real Interest, p. 100.....	COMPARISON OF OBLIGATIONS.			
				4 PER CT.		4½ PER CT.	
				To their Disadvantage	To their Advantage.	To their Disadvantage	To their Advantage.
1—English Consols.....	3	92½	3.26	74	124
2 } Baden State Loan.....	4	108½	3.69	31	81
3 }	3½	95	3.63	32	82
4—Rothschild Loan.....	4½	102½	4.40	40	10
5 } Bavaria.....	4	101½	3.95	05	55
6 }	3½	98	3.87	33	83
7—Loan of 1844.....	4½	99.85	4.51	51	01
8—Loan of 1853.....	4½	99.85	4.51	51	01
9—Belgium Loan of 1857.....	4½	99.85	4.51	51	01
10—Liberated Loan of 1836.....	4	99	4.04	04	46
11—Liberated Loan of 1838.....	3	83.50	3.59	41	91
12—Active debt increased.....	2½	61.45	4.07	07	43
13—Brunswick, Rothschild.....	3½	93½-18	3.75	27	77
14—Obligations.....	4	96	4.16	16	34
15—Denmark Obligations.....	3½	84	4.17	17	33
15 } Antwerp Obligations.....	4	85	4.71	71
17—Deyan Obligations, 100 thalers.....	3½	106½	3.29	71	121
18—France, 3 per cent., cash.....	3	68.95	4.35	35	15
19—Frankfort Obligations.....	3½	99½	3.52	48	98
20 } Hesse Ducal, Rothschild Obliga-	4	100½	3.98	2	52
21 } tions.....	3½	97½	3.60	40	90
22—Active Debt.....	2½	63½	3.94	06	56
23—Holland Active Debt.....	3	76½-16	3.94	6	56
24 } Holland Active Debt.....	4	99½	4.02	02	48
25 } Sindycaal Sinking Fund.....	3½	93½	3.75	27	77
26—Limburg Loan, 1862.....	4½	88	5.10	1.10	60
27—Luxembourg.....	4	95	4.21	21	29
28 } Loan.....	5	103	4.85	85	35
29 } Nassau Loan.....	4½	102	4.39	39	11
30 } Obligations, Rothschild.....	4	99½	4.03	03	47
31 } Obligations do.....	3½	94½	3.71	29	79
32—Norway Loan, 1848, 1851.....	4	96½	4.13	13	37
33—Russia Loan, 1853.....	4	99	4.04	04	40
34 } Loan 1855.....	4	103	3.88	12	62
35 } Saxony.....	3	92½	3.24	76	126
36—Sweden Hypothecary Loan.....	4	95½	4.18	18	32
37—Switzerland Federal Obligations.....	4½	101½	4.45	45	05
38 } Loan.....	4½	105½	4.25	25	25
39 } Wurtemberg.....	4	104½	3.84	16	66
40 }	3½	97½	3.60	40	90
Average.....	3.88	90.28					

This bank note to answer as a circulating medium for all transactions, it should, like the European obligation never be depreciated, and be of more service. The greater the number of clients of the hypothecary bank, the greater its circulation, and the more solid its guaranty. The establishment of a Loan Association would heal many of the wounds caused by the war, would give a great impetus to agriculture, which is the real force and power of nations, and the real riches of a people. We would increase agriculture, improve Cities, build Schools, and improve morally our Citizens, by honoring labor and loving the arts of peace.

There are two ways, says Leon Foucher, an old Minister of the Republic of 1848, to work for progress, one is false, and the other true. The first consists in speaking of it, and the other in acting. With these remarks I submit to the meditation of my fellow citizens, the above notions on the merits of the Real Estate Loan Companies.

MONROSE.

Translated for the author by J. C. D.

NOTE.—In order to make this Table intelligible, we will extract one quotation and give the translation, taking for example No. 1, English Consols: On the 22d of March the English Consols were quoted on 'Change at $92\frac{1}{2}$; at that rate the purchaser enjoyed an interest of 3.26 p. ct. If he were to convert into obligations at 4 p. ct., he would enjoy an increase of .74 p. ct. If he were to convert into obligations at $4\frac{1}{2}$ p. ct., he would enjoy an increase of 1.24 p. ct. This increase is over and above the amount of interest received on the English Consols: the consequences are evident.

ART. II.—NEW ORLEANS AND SHIP ISLAND SHIP CANAL.

[BY DURANT DAPONTE.]

The great problem which now presents itself to the people of the South is industrial. The great problem which presents itself to the people of New Orleans is commercial. Neither for the South in general, nor for New Orleans in particular do political questions possess that character of primary importance with which they have been popularly invested, in consequence of the delusion that the fundamental evils which afflict us are political evils, and that they are to be cured by the use of political remedies. In the case of New Orleans, this delusion is the more pernicious because New Orleans suffers far more than any other community in the country from causes which are only remotely connected with politics, and which can be removed without appealing to the aid of political parties, either at home or abroad. To state the case plainly, New Orleans has been over-burdened by a load of monopolies which, whilst they have, of course, benefited the few individuals who have managed to obtain control of the avenues of trade, have operated disastrously on the general interests of the city. Thus, monopolies have controlled all the great lines of communication over which New Orleans ought to have extended her influence, and along which she could have attracted to herself the trade of immense sections of country, which either remains undeveloped for want of access to to a market, or which send their products to more distant depots, simply because New Orleans has not had the sagacity or the ability to avail herself of the improved methods which the commercial necessities of the times demand. Take two cases by way of illustration—Mobile is about 160 miles from New Orleans, that is to say, about the distance of Albany from New York. There is water communication between Albany and New York, and there is water communication between Mobile and New Orleans. But there are two direct lines of railroad running parallel with the Hudson, and there is no direct railroad between the two great gulf ports. Every attempt to construct such a road, in spite of its manifest importance, has been frustrated by capitalists who have acquired a monopoly of the carrying trade between the two ports, and who are sure to reduce the trade to the lowest amount compatible with the highest

attainable profit on the capital which they have invested. Toward the West the efforts of New Orleans to reach the great Texan empire, and draw to herself the immense trade which is sure to accrue from the products of those fertile regions, have been similarly nullified. Even the great river itself, that magnificent transit way which opens to us the heart of the continent, has been almost closed to us at its mouth by all sorts of monopolies—pilot monopolies, towboat monopolies, and others similar—and by an onerous and absurd system of charges, until New Orleans has become a monument of commercial isolation.

We have said that the remedy for these things lies not in a change of political systems, but in a change of commercial and industrial methods; and, when we say a change of industrial and commercial methods, we mean an abandonment of the old and unscientific system, and an adoption of a new system conforming to the established truths of political economy, and to the requirements of the times. We do not propose, in this article, to enter upon a detailed exposition of the manner in which New Orleans may avert the perils by which she is surrounded, otherwise than to say, in general terms, that she must prepare to contest the field with her rivals by using the same weapons which they have found effective; and by discarding ideas and methods which they have abandoned as detrimental and obstructive. What we particularly desire to show is that among the commercial wants of New Orleans, one of the most important is to open a new and expeditious and commodious route to the sea. To fight the monopolists in front, involves a long struggle. To try to raise the blockade at the mouth of the river seems almost a hopeless undertaking. Even the expenditure of large sums of money for the purpose of deepening the water on the bar, though it should be more successful in the future, than in the past, would still leave us to overcome the hundred and twenty miles of tedious and torturous river navigation, and to confront the pilot monopoly and the towboat monopoly, and the onerous port charges, and other devices by which commerce has been driven from our wharves. We might overcome all these difficulties in time, or those which result from human agency, at least, by boldly facing, and persistently combating them; but we can overcome them, or rather avoid them, far more speedily, and far more

certainly by adopting what military men call the oblique order. We must substitute grand strategy for grand tactics. We must flank the blockade, instead of trying to raise it by a direct assault.

At the last session of the Legislature of Louisiana, a charter was granted for the construction of a canal to connect the Mississippi river with the deep waters of the gulf. This, expressed in these general terms, is not a new project. There can be no doubt that the site of the city of New Orleans was selected on account of its proximity to Lake Pontchartrain; the maximum distance between the lake and the river bank, say on the line of the Pontchartrain railroad, not being more than four and a half miles. The problem to be solved by the early settlers was, qualitatively, not different from the problem which again demands solution—to find, not only a practicable and easy route to the sea for the products of the interior, but a practicable and easy route from the sea to the port which was to be the depot of exchange for the great valley above. At that day steam was not even a conception as a motive power, and the vacillating winds could not be depended on to urge a vessel up the tortuous channel of the Mississippi, against a current which sometimes runs at the rate of four miles an hour. If it had been possible to build a city at the mouth of the river, this problem would never have been presented. But the Mississippi belongs to the class of delta-forming rivers. Once indeed, so the records of geology inform us, it was a quiet, pellucid stream, reflecting the blue sky in its clear depths, and acting towards its restraining banks with a becoming and respectful deference. It then entered the gulf at a point just below Baton Rouge, and the old coast line may now be traced along the northern shore of Lakes Pontchartrain and Maurepas and bayou Manchac, and in a great curve extending southwestward to a point near Brashear City. The calm waters of the river scarcely disturbed the sea with which they gently mingled, and thick groves of pine and oak swept along a clean white beach quite up to the river's mouth. But this was when the great basin north of the Ohio was a fresh water sea which had its outlet in the gulf, and not in the Atlantic, as at present. When the fresh water sea shrank into the fresh water lakes which now constitute another system, the Mississippi changed its nature. It became the rapid, turbid, audacious and irrepressible stream which torments us with an-

nual crises of inundation, and alternate fits of depression. Since that change took place, about three or four thousand years ago, as well as we can calculate, or contemporaneously with a similar conversion of the Nile into a delta-forming river, the whole district between the ancient coast line and the sea has been won from the salt water by the deposits of the fresh.

This is the true delta of the Mississippi. The manner of its formation can still be observed at the Passes where the struggle between the two elements of earth and water is going on under our very eyes. A traveler entering the mouth of the Mississippi and journeying upwards, sees around him for miles on miles of weary voyage the yellow waters of the river separated only by a thin line of land from the blue waves of the gulf. Although, geologically considered, this Neptunian process is a comparatively modern stage of evolution, with reference to that approximate equilibrium which marks the human period, it seems like the very beginning of things; the first emergence of rudimentary order from elemental chaos. Wherever the eye falls there is nothing but an expanse of muddy waters mingling on the horizon with the deep blue of the sea; lumps of mud peering above the surface, reedy banks at first almost invisible and then growing into lines of potential river shore. But, although the creative forces of nature are evidently at work, all seems new and unformed. You are on debatable territory. It is not land for terrene purposes, and it does not seem to be navigable water,

— *rudis indigesta que moles;*

* * * *instabilis telles, innabilis unda.*

Here, in long ages after us, a great city may be built upon the underlying stratum of sand-stone, formed from the debris of the spoils wrenched from the Rocky Mountains and the Alleghanies, and deposited in the warm waters of the Gulf of Mexico; and some successor of Hugh Miller may exhibit to the future post diluvians, the fossilized remains of the very alligator which is now lazily watching a passing steamer, or the garfish which is making his breakfast on some luckless gull. But the possibilities of a remote future do not concern us now. The New Orleans of that era may, perchance, be contemporary with Macaulay's New Zealander, but New Zealand will then have grown into a continent, and the Gulf of Mexico may be reduced to the dimensions of a narrow strait. For the present

we must take things as we find them, after the example of the worthy founders of New Orleans, who saw that there was no place for a city either at the mouth of the river, or for seventy miles above. They discovered, however, that by ascending about forty miles further they would approach the sea, or a body of still water communicating with the sea within five miles, and that thus they could get rid of the lower river altogether. For the shipping of that day, Lake Pontchartrain and bayou St. John were deep enough; but it would be difficult, if not impossible for such vessels to beat up against the current of the river. So here the problem, as it then presented itself, was solved. But the solution failed when the problem was presented in a new form, embracing new elements. The invention of steam made it possible to use the river through its whole extent, and the wants of modern commerce brought into existence a class of vessels which were compelled to reach the city by way of the river, because they could not navigate the shallow waters of Lake Pontchartrain. Finally, however, vessels grew too large even for the Mississippi—or, to speak more accurately—for the bar at the mouth of the river. Year after year great steamers and sail vessels have been stranded for days, and even weeks at a time, sunken on mud-reefs, and all efforts to remove or even materially mitigate the difficulty have signally failed. Besides its directly injurious effect on commerce, this vexatious obstacle brings with it a train of attendant evils by increasing the expense of pilotage, and the rate of insurance; and we, with an almost incomprehensible perversity, have added the burdens of monopoly, and of excessive charges, to those which nature had already made so onerous.

Now our true method of obviating these difficulties seems to be to take advantage of the remarkable peculiarities of position possessed by this city, by returning to the obvious plan which presented itself to the original founders. That is to say, we must make New Orleans change front, and establish her main harbor toward what is now the rear of the city. The consummation of the project involved in the charter above referred to will effect this object, because it will bring New Orleans within thirty miles of the deep waters of the Gulf. Let us see the advantages which this would confer on the commerce of the port. And first, we must premise that the proposed canal is to commence at a point *above* the city, between Jefferson City and

Carrollton, thence it is to follow a line within the ridge, and running about two streets in the rear of Broad street, until it strikes the Rigoles near Lake Catharine. Thus it will be seen that a new harbor will be opened, superior as to the protection which it will offer for shipping and as to the facilities which it will afford for ware-houses, grain elevators, and loading and discharging places, to that which is now furnished by the river. Indeed, practically, this will be another, and a shorter river outlet, free from the inconveniences which attend the actual route to the sea; for a direct connection will be made with the river by means of a lock which will afford ingress into the canal for sea going vessels, and for river craft of all kinds. By opening this route through freight may be shipped from St. Louis, and all the river ports to Havana, and other Gulf ports, and return freights may be secured, consisting of that large fruit trade which now goes to New York, simply because the commercial policy of New Orleans has driven it from the Mississippi. About \$500,000 worth of fruits are imported annually into the United States from the Mediterranean, a mean distance of 5000 miles, or twenty days steam time; and yet, the West Indies, with a greater supply of better fruits, lie within a thousand miles of New Orleans, or from three to five days steam time. It is estimated that 5,000,000 tons of freight passed, last year from the Atlantic ports to the West; the greater part of which, if we had rapid and easy communication with the interior and with the sea could be carried far more cheaply by way of New Orleans. The cross lines can compete with the great north and south line of the Mississippi, only when the Mississippi is partially blockaded by monopolies and onerous charges. Let these be removed, and combine the removal with a judicious use of artificial, but necessary methods, and the trade of the West will flow through New Orleans as naturally as water finds its level. The direction of trade is governed by forces, which follow the line of least resistance, and resistance is a final quantity compounded of time and cost. The line of least resistance is that on which the resultant, or product of these two factors is least, and when we have thoroughly comprehended this fact, we have mastered the explanation of the phenomenon, which seems to perplex so many people—the relative decrease of the commerce of New Orleans, compared with the commerce of other sea ports. It is difficult to arrive at an exact statement of the

expenses in various ports; but we can reach an approximation which will suit our purposes. We will take, for the sake of comparison, the three ports of New York, Boston and New Orleans, estimating the charges on a ship of 1000 tons, drawing fifteen feet.

The New York charges are as follows:

Tonnage.....	\$300 00
Entry Fee.....	5 50
Harbor Master.....	15 00
Health Officer.....	6 50
U. S. Hospital (say 30 men for a month).....	6 00
Pilotage, inward.....	85 00
Pilotage, outward.....	38 00
Wharfage.....	20 00
Towage.....	200 00
Total.....	\$775 50

In Boston the charges are—

Tonnage.....	\$500 00
Entry Fee.....	5 50
Harbor Master.....	15 00
Health Officer.....	3 00
Hospital money.....	6 00
Pilotage.....	90 00
Towage.....	150 00
Total.....	\$569 50

In Boston the cargo pays the wharfage. In both of the above several charges are excluded which might increase the amount about fifty dollars, and no account is taken of the expense of loading and discharging.

Now take New Orleans; here we give only the heavy charges, such as tonnage, bar pilotage, river pilotage, towage and wharfage—

Tonnage—say.....	\$300 00
Bar pilotage, in and out.....	135 00
River pilotage, up and down.....	120 00
Towage, up.....	1250 00
Towage, down.....	500 00
Wharfage.....	250 00
Total.....	\$2285 00

Thus it will be seen that it costs a vessel three times as much to come to this port as to New York, and four times as much as to Boston. It will be observed, likewise, that the towage alone will more than twice pay the total expenses of a vessel in New York, and three times pay them in Boston. If we get rid of this immense tax we shall do a great deal towards constituting New Orleans the line of least resistance. The proposed canal would reduce the pilotage

from \$250 to about \$50, and the towage from \$1,750 to \$150—say a saving on these two items alone of 1800 dollars, and leaving the other charges to be represented by five hundred dollars at the maximum, in which would be included the tolls levied by the company. Passing from cost to time we must compute the difference between the two routes for a vessel coming from the entrance of the Gulf, say the straits of Florida, as a test. The distance to the bar is, say 600 miles, and to Ship Island, say 630. If it would take a sailing vessel 120 hours to make the bar, it would take the same vessel 125 hours to make Ship Island. But at the bar she would be detained, on an average twenty-four hours, and the trip to the city would consume twenty-four hours more. Thus, by the river route she would be 168 hours in reaching New Orleans. Now, supposing a detention of two hours at Ship Island, and allowing six hours to reach the city by way of the canal, it would take a vessel by this route 133 hours, or a saving of thirty-five hours over the other. The immense importance of this difference will be appreciated when it is considered that during these thirty-five hours, freight can be moved by railroad all the way from New Orleans to Cairo. It is plain that the effect of opening the canal route would be in the first place to attract to itself the trade which now enters the river, to the extent of the capacity of the canal, and next to attract a vast commerce which either goes elsewhere, or remains undeveloped. A depth of twelve feet which would accommodate the whole of the existing Gulf trade, and would be sufficient for the wants of that immense traffic between the West and the West Indian Islands, which must spring up as soon as the actual obstacles are removed. This traffic ought to be worth at least \$50,000,000 per annum in the way of imports and exports—imports of sugar, molasses, cigars, tobacco, fruits and exports of flour, corn and pork, lumber and staves, and naval stores, whereas the aggregate of dutiable merchandise imported into New Orleans, from all points, has never exceeded \$20,000,000.

The question now arises—what would be the expense of the proposed canal. Before making an estimate in figures we will state that it will be cheaper than any work of equal importance ever before undertaken. In order to prove this, and as a fitting conclusion to this article, we give the following, as the report of a competent

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engineer—General Jeff Thompson:

NEW ORLEANS, La., Nov. 28, 1868.

Col. Geo. F. Brott, President of the New Orleans and Ship Island Canal Company:

SIR—I have examined the proposed plan and location of the New Orleans and Ship Island Canal, and compared them with maps and data in my possession, and I can see no obstacle to the successful completion of the work, except the large capital required. The estimated distance from the Mississippi river to the Rigolets on the line proposed, is twenty-eight miles, a portion of which is already occupied by bayous sufficiently large to use as the canal, but as the slight undulations of the surface of the ground are not accurately known, I have assumed in my calculation, that the whole twenty-eight miles will have to be excavated. Your plan is to first complete the canal to a depth of twelve feet, and afterwards sink it to twenty feet in depth. To do this I would recommend that a canal seventy-five feet or one-half the proposed width, be first excavated, with "basins" every mile, of five hundred feet in length of the width of 150 feet. This would make 133,840 feet of a section of 1560 square feet or 808,080 cubic yards or a total for the opening of the canal of 4,193,220 cubic yards from the Mississippi river to the Rigolets, and when the same shall be opened to the full section of 150 feet on surface, and twelve feet deep. The excavation will amount to about 8,000,000 cubic yards.

When this distance shall have been completed to the full section of 150 feet at surface 100 feet on bottom, and twenty feet deep, the total excavation will be about 13,000,000 cubic yards, and estimating the value of this work as done partly by manual labor and partly by machinery, it will average 33½ cents per yard or \$4,333,333 00.

This would bring you to the Rigolets, but beyond there, you will find shoal water, as there is two miles of only ten feet of water at low tide; so to use your twelve foot canal, it would be necessary to dredge this distance, or delay ships or vessels for high tide. This work can not be properly estimated, for it will cost so much less than similar work in other localities that it is not proper to calculate from usual data. The peculiar conformation of the coasts in this locality, with the large reservoir of Lake Pontchartrain, keeps a constant rushing of the tides through a narrow channel, called the Rigolets, which extends to the deep water near Ship Island, so that in lieu of the extensive plan of dredging and transporting the material to some other locality, you will simply cut up and distribute the clay at the bottom, and the current will carry it away and distribute it on either side, or in deep water, and as there is no constant deposit of sediment here, like there is at the mouth of the Mississippi river; the channel with light occasional work, will remain open when once cut. I will, however, estimate this work as being 300 feet wide, 2½ feet deep and 2 miles long, which will be about 300,000 cubic yards, at a cost of \$150,000.

When it shall become necessary to sink this to a twenty foot channel, there will probably be nearly ten miles of such work to be done of a section equal to the twelve foot canal, or about 3,000,000, cubic yards, all of which will be done by cutting, boring, scraping, etc., as is done at the mouth of the Mississippi.

The canals and ditches, and bayous that permeate this whole State, prove conclusively that this work is only one of *time and money*, for its practicability, when these are furnished, is beyond a doubt, and if your genius can furnish these, there are plenty of engineers who will furnish the talent to accomplish the work.

I am yours, most respectfully,

M. JEFF THOMPSON,

Civil Engineer.

ART. III.—MEXICO.

[BY A. W. ROYSDON, ESQ.]

More than three hundred years have elapsed since the civilization of Europe flashed from the sword of Cortez upon Mexico; yet, ignorance supplies the place of education, bigotry and prejudice that of enlightened policy and liberal laws,—“Decays effacing fingers” are rapidly sweeping away the last traces of a past industry and prosperity.

Unscrupulous ambition and the mockery of that “fierce war-cry, of Human Freedom” have left in blight and desolation the land of Anahuac so famous in history and in song. Her temples have been converted into the offices of tax-gatherers; her religion into a gross and vulgar superstition, her halls of justice into auction marts, her laws into machinery of extortion and corruption.

Of the many countries which Spanish valor, stimulated by the national vice, avarice, conquered, none were so magnificently endowed with all that could make a country the envy of mankind as Mexico.

Peru was deficient in so vast extent of fertile soil, navigable rivers and variety of production;—Chili, in inexhaustible leads of the precious ores; the provinces of Central America and those in the southern continent contiguous thereto, in salubrity of climate,—the land of the Montezumas embraced, and does yet contain all that chastened fancy could suggest or luxurious wants demand.

Why is it, that that country so incomparably superior to all the other Spanish provinces is sunken in a grosser ignorance and more disgusting barbarism? The whole extent of that magnificent empire lies within the zone comprised between 12° and 26° north latitude, which the profound Buckle says is of necessity, the birth region of civilization; it possessed within its borders at the time of its conquest a higher civilization than was elsewhere to be found on the western hemisphere. Since that period it has enjoyed the advantages of a larger European immigration than the countries to the south; owing to its greater proximity and richer products, its communication with foreign nations has been less interrupted and more frequent.

Peru, Chili, and even Brazil where “nature seems to riot in the very wantonness of power,” where man “is reduced to insignificance by the majesty with which he is surrounded,” have adopted European

civilization, and the arts and sciences, begin to flourish.

In Mexico as in Spain and Italy, certainly, the priests who exercise an influence most hurtful to improvement, and education, cannot alone be the cause. Personal observation has confirmed the opinion that, the Mexican character contains an unconquerable aversion to improvement, or innovation. Even in their domestic affairs they are immutable. In illustration might be cited the fact that the foreigner avails himself of the corn sheller and mill, whilst the native foolishly clings to the slow and never ending process of shelling corn with the hand, then boiling it in lime water so as to soften the grains in order that they may be mashed by hands between two stones. The woman with a family of three or four children employs three-fourths of her wakeful moments in preparing the corn to make tortillas, the national bread. Nothing can impress upon them the truth of the maxim, "time and labor saved, is money." What their ancestors did in the fabled and legendary past, before the dynasty of the Montezumas, they do now. Inquire of one why he does such a thing in such a manner, the invariable answer is, "my father did so, why should I know better than he."

With every luxury growing wild, no people upon the globe fare so frugally. With the cacao, coffee, sugar and every tropical fruit, they are perfectly content with a drink of mashed corn, raw, or baked, mixed with cold or warm water as taste suggests—with a soil capable of growing every vegetable, one can scarcely be procured. Even the national bean frijole is the luxury of the more opulent.

The ruins of Palenque and Cholula, those in the Chiapas and upon the Gila corroborate the testimony of Cortez and the Spanish historiographers of the splendor and magnificence of Anahuac—the Paris of anti-European America, and these attest a people far advanced in material civilization, nor contemptibly ignorant of some of the more ennobling arts and useful sciences.

The Aztecs, the Athenians of the West, may have enjoyed the fruits of those ruder arts and sciences, but their proper descendants of this day, have not only disregarded the advantages thrust upon them, but, have even lost the uncouth civilization bequeathed by their ancestors. The truculent savage who hunts the buffalo upon the Llanos Stacados of Texas, or plains of Kansas in lettered education is

as proficient as the Mexican in general. Neither in towns or cities is education, as understood in the refined circles of society, in the United States or Europe, to be found in any class. Rarely do we meet one of the natives who has had the benefit of a thorough curriculum at an university in the United States or Europe. The scholar honored with a diploma from a Mexican college may have a faint idea of the distinction between Roman and Grecian literature, he can discover some difference between a co-sine and an isoceles triangle, but were he examined in the legends of the saints, the extensiveness and minuteness of his knowledge would do honor to a Franciscan monk of the romance age. The women are painfully ignorant, and while there are colleges and classical schools at the capital of Mexico, and while the political authorities have founded a department of mineral science, and necessarily compile the revenue statistics, still, social statistics is a science unknown, and personal observation has induced the opinion that not one woman in five hundred can read and write, nor in the better class, can three out of seven be found who have been taught or understand both geography and grammar. The course of study as taught in the public schools, consists of a small equivalent of arithmetic, reading and writing with an undue proportion of religious formalism and superstitious tradition.

They seem to entertain an invincible determination never to advance beyond hieratic immobility. The Mexican is equally as kind to his body as he is indulgent to his mind; if the latter enjoys a comatose inertia, the other rests in an anaconda torpor—he extends not the encouraging hand of industry to the bounties and prodigalities of nature, nor can anything induce this drone to quit his hammock, if he possesses but a weeks allowance of corn.

Gambling is a national institution—the gaming table the home—the hoped for heaven of a Mexican. A decree against gambling by Maximilian, first roused the prejudices of the people against the empire, and Mahomet himself would have failed to establish in Mexico the religion of a sensual paradise had he not have included among its pleasures the delightful and charming phrenzy of the Monte table. At any time may be seen the children, boys or girls, from five years of age and upwards, with cigar or cigar in mouth, betting at the same roulette or Monte table with their parents. The most ordina-

ry man who has observed the effects of that awful vice, can easily conjecture the morals of an ignorant nation who encourage it, both in the male and female. The crimes considered peculiar to the East are not uncommon among them. Vienna the banner city of illegitimacy has had her laurels captured by the national profligacy of Mexico—there concubinage ranks with marriage, and illegitimacy is protected by law. The Goddess of the ancients could not have been more honored by the rites of the Daphnian grove, than by the social condition of Mexico.

Religion being an education of the most exalted and powerful kind, the teacher possesses a formidable power to mould the national character, and especially in those countries where there is an established religion, as in Mexico until recently. The most profligate class are proverbially the priests, who, with a creed the most austere and forbidding, encourage crimes the most heinous, and vices the most disgusting and ruinous. If anywhere the priesthood have succeeded in establishing ignorance and manacling the intellect, that country is Mexico.

True, the State has confiscated the property of the Church—its temporal riches are gone—but its thralldom over the mind, its spiritual strength is the same, and *American civilization only* can burst asunder the bonds. If their rude structures can be called architecture then their national architecture, unsightly paintings, immodest dress and music which has been facetiously but truly described as, "their liveliest songs are sad and their merriest tunes are melancholy," all these furnish the same indisputable evidences of semi-barbarism.

Their periodicals from vapidness of thought might be suitable for a child, from grandiloquence of style, to a Mexican, and the critical writer deriving epithets from a national characteristic would certainly substitute the more vigorous and forcible *Mexicanade* for the obsolete Gasconade.

The loathsome ideas which are wreaked into such disgusting language and which constitute the ordinary conversation of the people would bring the blush to the cheek of even a Chinaman.

Why, their moral character is so debased while professing so chastening a religion, why, with an intellect which seems capable of high cultivation and with all their advantages of commercial intercourse with Europe and the United States they should still be a semi-

barbarous nation in decay is a mystery. Macaulay says of Barrere, he "approached nearer than any person mentioned in history or fiction whether man, or devil, to the idea of consummate and universal depravity;" so of the Mexican character, "putting everything together sensuality, poltroonery, baseness, perfidy, affrontery, mendacity, and barbarity the result is something which in a novel we should condemn as a caricature," and to which no parallel can be found among nations professing to be Christian, and boasting a civilization.

ART. IV.—POPULAR LESSONS ON THE ART OF DRAWING IN FRANCE AND ENGLAND.

[Revue des Deux Mondes.]

TRANSLATED BY T. C. DELAVIGNE, ESQ.

In most of the great States of Europe there exists at this day a spirit of emulation and pacific wrestling, which is as earnest, at least, as far as is shown by the unanimity with which it proceeds, as the seeming necessity of increasing the military armaments. It is as two streams flowing in contrary directions, one corresponding to warlike tendencies, the other to industrial and commercial pursuits. They are both, no doubt necessary, but we may hope that in the end, the latter shall prevail. Popular education, professional education, and specially the art of drawing, for the working classes, have been made the subject of serious and profitable studies. The costs in money, having for their object to put a people upon a good footing of industrial defense, are generally, readily incurred; the charges are not onerous and are very profitable and productive; the item in the budget does not constitute a charge out of proportion with the advantages sought. Whilst, in France we are seeking to inaugurate or reform schools for drawing, which either do not exist or are very poor in the provincial towns; whilst we are urging as an example worthy of imitation, the vigorous efforts of England, England itself is taking model after France. The sale of her products are diminishing in amount. She attributes her disaster to the insufficiency of her schools for drawing. In the opinion of Mr. Stuart Mill, who thinks he does good service for his country, in not withholding

certain unpalatable truths, England has not been favored in relation to art. It has not there flourished as in other countries which England has surpassed in other respects. The notions and ideas of art, well understood and appreciated by a small class of adepts, have not made any progress in the masses of the people. The inferiority which this ignorance communicates to all the products, has been perceived, and the only remedy found for it, is the intellectual culture of the workman, and the special teaching of drawing in the professional schools. The subject has become one of public interest, and it might almost be said, one of national interest. If drawing be a language in industrial pursuit, it is entitled to have a place in industrial England. That which has been so long looked upon as an art of ornament and pleasure is really a language, a universal and indispensable language, which will live as long as there is a human civilization. Does not drawing, by a few significant lines, aid us in conceiving things, while pages of writing of the utmost precision, accompanied by notes and commentaries, would fail in giving us adequate ideas to comprehend them? Such is the object of those who insist upon the reform of having positive drawing taught first, and before the abstract drawing called writing. We have heard an intelligent person say, that he would never forgive those who brought him up, for not having taught him at the same time with his maternal tongue, instead of the dead languages, the two living languages. These were, music and drawing. It is not necessary for us to insist upon the advantages to be derived from what may be called the practical schools of art. These advantages are becoming every where patent, and explains the reason why our neighbors have received with so much favor the bold enterprise of the foundation at South Kensington of a sort of metropolis of art, both a school and museum. We have seen at the exposition of 1867 some of the results produced by this establishment, and they are of a nature to call for reflection. It is not impossible that the English, although they have started further from the goal than we have, yet, on account of their vigor, tenacity, and perseverance in what they have once resolved, may not outstrip us, make a conquest in art and science, and take a rank which they shall transmit to future generations. Their efforts merit for them the prize. It is possible that they may go far beyond other countries now much in advance of them, unless the latter by an intelligent emulation see to

the preservation of their laurels.

The first universal exposition at London had been the means of bringing out a fact generally acknowledged, but the evidence of which was not striking, and which English patriotism was loth to admit. That fact was, the superiority acquired by France in all products wherein a judicious use of the material was joined to taste and ingenuity in the execution, which to a certain extent are derived from art. For the beauty of aspect, the harmonious proportion of parts, the excellence of getting up, the industry of our country obtained preference. England especially, as appears by official reports, to wit: those of Mr. Merimee, saw that she was behind hand in these respects. She immediately undertook to devise means to repair the deficiency. It appeared to her that it was urgent, for notwithstanding the repugnance of the English to suffer the government to meddle with their personal affairs, they allowed the state to interfere. One year had not elapsed, after it was known that they had been outdone, that the school of South Kensington was founded. There was established immediately a directory for the art of drawing, a department for drawing, a department for drawings and science and a committee on education. This directory is now composed of a president, the Duke of Buckingham, and a vice president, a chief secretary Mr. Henry Cole, who is also a director of the museum. It was Mr. Cole who lately, at the free school of architecture at Paris, prompted by a sentiment of courteous emulation, proposed a toast to the advancement of art in France. There are also general inspectors stationary and traveling, examiners of various grades, keepers of collections, a great number of professors of both sexes to teach drawing, mechanics, architecture; perspective, mechanical drawing, anatomy and modeling, agents for the sale of models; these are the instruments of the new organization. The female teachers have a superintendent directrix.

Money was not wanting; the reform was soon efficacious. Violent remedies were adopted. It was not sufficient that tuition was gratuitous, the scholars were paid. After examination premiums were given and diplomas, to which donations were attached. Encouragement was given to the formation of societies, otherwise independent, in towns and villages. The only condition attached was that they should allow of the visit of the inspectors and examiners of Kensington.

As soon as the societies accept the conditions, they are entitled to receive considerable appropriations in money which vary according to the progress of the students. In this way the committees of towns concede so much of their action as they think proper and the office of the central committee is restricted to placing at their disposal the professors which she has educated in her schools of art and in the normal schools, at South Kensington, *national art training school*.

It was as may be seen, placing alongside of the most elementary school for children and for adults, a higher branch for the education of professors. For this last the State assumes a large part of the expenses, depending for reimbursement upon the increase of riches to be produced by the increase in value of other products of national industry. It was an appeal made to the practical good sense and interest of individuals and of towns. The resources and means placed at their disposal concerned the advancement of art only. The sciences were represented at Kensington, and there also, received encouragement. We, however, voluntarily omit this side of the question, to consider that alone which was thought in England to be the most important. Withal, the long catalogue of books recommended by the committee of South Kensington, the lectures that are made in the view of aiding progress in the sciences, merit better than a rapid mention.

From the time of the exposition of 1855, England was enabled to see the road she had traveled for some years back, and have an idea of what the future held in reserve if she continued in the same path. Industrial France was reposing in quietude upon her successes of 1857, and in her triumph over competitors. In her turn she raised the cry of alarm. The report of M. Da Sommerard, said: "Outside of France, great progress has been attained in foreign countries, and particularly in England, the products are sober in ornaments to a degree worthy of all praise." Seven years afterwards Mr. Merimee, said that all illusions should be dispelled, and it would not do to yield to fallacious security. * * * Immense progress has taken place in all of Europe, and although we have not remained stationary, yet, it cannot be disguised that the advance we had taken has diminished. English industry has within a few years made prodigious progress. The situation at present is one of great moment, and even threatening—it calls for a prompt remedy." Let

us inquire how such a large distance and interval had been passed in such a short time, and how it was that we were so closely followed? The members of the jury have unanimously answered. "It is the school of South Kensington that has done it." South Kensington had actually extended its useful services to all the kingdom. It was the centre from which the move was made, and the affluence of those who had recourse to it was so great that the committee found it proper to make it of easier access, by establishing branches on the principal lines of railroad entering at the city of London. All this progress had been realized in less than ten years.

At this day, about 150 schools, depending upon twenty principal and superior establishments, are in direct and constant communication with the committee of South Kensington.

Some towns whose population is, however, not large, are noted for the number of scholars that attend these schools. Institutes for workmen where conferences are held upon all subjects relating to the manual arts, have proved to be insufficient; men and women show an avidity to learn. The manufacturing companies as may be supposed, are at the head of the movement. Birmingham, with a population of 300,000 souls, whose school dates only from 1842, had in 1867, more than 1000 scholars receiving a special education in drawing. Bristol, with one-half of the population, had 300 scholars learning the arts, whilst the ordinary schools number 3000. Dublin, has 500 scholars out of 3000, with a population of 250,000. Liverpool, with nearly twice the population of the Irish capital, has two schools for drawing, one for each district, and has more than 1900 scholars participating in the instruction there given. Lastly, London, with a population of about three millions, has in its ten schools for drawing nearly 3000 scholars. And yet, we are leaving aside in our estimates the schools of arts for women; that of Bloomsburg, with 150 scholars. One parish 5000, Henley, has 150 scholars; Western Super Mare, a town of 8,000 has eighty scholars. It may be that these figures, which we look upon as considerable, may not at first sight appear to be worthy of being noted, and not in relation with the results signalized. It is certain, however, that Paris for example compared with London, with a population much smaller, has a much greater number of scholars; but it must not be forgotten that the institution on the other side of the straits is quite new; that France

has preceded England of a whole century in the establishment of free schools of drawing; that even in London the oldest primary schools of that sort are of quite recent creation, as it is only in 1842 that they were united by a central directory.

It will not be without interest to examine how these schools are organized, how they operate, and to compare them with ours. Their regulations are far different from any that we have adopted so far. An annual sum is appropriated by Parliament, and administered by the department of science and arts. "A part of this sum is employed in bringing to perfection the studies concerning the art in the United Kingdom." What is specially cared for and encouraged, is the art of drawing, painting and modeling, in their relation to the wants of manufactures and the industrial classes. The inspectors signalize each year the state of advancement in the specialities, the results attained, the complaints, and the wants, and make returns thereof. In their investigations, they act with entire candor, without fear from exposing evils and bringing the blame to immediate agents. The Press, the chambers of commerce, the families, those interested, whoever they may be, are free to draw information from these reports which are open to all, and at the end of the year, form a volume. The document among those which appears at the end of the year sets forth very clearly, in the form of a report to the Queen, the developments and limits of the institution. The summary indicates what is proposed; it is to raise the standard of teaching for artisans, and to aid the industrial classes in receiving instruction in the branches of science and art, having a direct application to their occupations. The schedule thus defined is not of easy application. It is necessary to instil into the mind of the child who is yet learning, the elementary notions of what is grand and beautiful in art, and also to instil into the mind of the adult who has in great part ceased to learn any thing. It is necessary to educate professors enough to supply all the wants of the future. The committee then pays for the teaching of drawing, as far, at least, as the elements are concerned, in the schools for poor children, in the evening schools for artisans, in the special schools of recent creation, and in its normal schools. And here, it may be imagined, the teaching is of a higher order and more complete.

What are the schools for the poor in the United Kingdom? Is it

necessary for the admittance of a child that he should present a certificate of the poverty of his parents? The formalities are not so rigorous; the term poor is understood in, and has a more liberal interpretation. Whoever earns his existence by manual labor can have admission for his children in the schools that are called establishments for the poor. The department pays the expenses of these schools. It imposes but one condition—the professor must undergo an examination, and have received a certificate of the second or third class. In those towns where it comes to be appreciated that sound notions and ideas of drawing may be advantageously explained, whether with the view to industrial pursuits or any other, the committee of Kensington comes to their assistance. It requires only that a local committee establish relations with it. It does not consent to correspond with the professors; it has to deal only with the secretaries chosen by the local committee. It furnishes to the town which makes the call, the money necessary to procure good models, to the extent of fifty per cent of their cost. The committee considers that the models, which are wanting in France and England, are one of the principal elements of success in such schools. In addition to these aids, of which the efficacy may be easily imagined, are joined others, which in France, would run the risk of appearing very singular. The committee of Kensington pays the provincial schools the sum of one franc, 20 cents per head for scholars who learn drawing, the double of it if the child has been benefited by learning in that branch, the treble of it, if the scholar has passed an excellent examination. These premiums are always in a direct ratio of the results attained. It may be seen, that the means employed, and which are arduously insisted upon, are characteristic of the race of Englishmen, and of the spirit actuating those who have conceived the idea and felt the necessity of this special education. They appear to us to bear the impress of great practical good sense, and must have a corresponding effect on the situation to which they have attempted to bring a rapid modification. This is all that should reasonably be expected, and it would be unbecoming not to acknowledge to what extent they have succeeded. Payments in money are not all. Premiums are awarded to the child who has merited the distinction. They consist in objects of utility rather than display, such as instruments for drawing, books, cartoons. Those of the scholars sufficiently eminent become teachers and aspir-

ants for professorships. At the examinations of the end of the year premiums are again awarded.

After teaching the children, the design has been entertained of teaching men, and to that effect evening classes have been organized, which are generally reserved to adults—it has been thought proper not to allow for these lectures complete gratuity, but at the same time it was well understood that many workingmen would keep away if it was attempted to obtain from them besides their good will, the sacrifice of money above their means. It was declared that "artisans" were free to exempt themselves from payment, and the definition of the word "artisans" was not restricted to its literal sense, any more than the word "poor" had been restricted in its application to primary schools. Such were considered "artisans," as not only those who received a salary at the end of the week, as well as their children not yet earning their existence by the labor of their hands, but also all such persons as have not sure means of living, peddling dealers, men who without apprentices exercise their industry in a shop, carpenters in villages, coast guards, policemen, and all those who have not the means of paying their own schooling. On the other hand, the benefit of the gratuity is refused to those who under whatever condition or title owe an income tax. The evening classes are under the direction of a local committee which cannot be composed of less than five persons. This committee receives the appropriations awarded by the ministry. The initiative of every measure, of every improvement, lies with them in concert with the professor. This last must have a diploma for drawing, and a patent as master of arts. The ministry reserves to itself, exclusively of the local committee and of the professor, the right of judging who are those the most worthy of its rewards. The degree of merit for which premiums are awarded is even determined each year by the central committee, who may augment the difficulty of obtaining them, according to circumstances, as it may perceive the degree of progress realized and a due emulation kept up. The judgments of the inspectors and examiners cannot be appealed from. The encouragements in money are distributed with munificence. The English are not afraid of ruining the State Treasury by prodigalities, of which we have no idea. Our organization of administration has no example of it in any case. If the English are sometimes profuse in their outlays for warlike purposes, they take

care never to drain the treasury so as not to leave something to meet wants no less pressing, and remunerate before hand the pacific services of artisans who receive the aid of the government. They show by sacrifices of money, better than by words, their solicitude for the improvement of the condition of the great industrial army, on which depends so much the interests and destiny of the country. To every artisan who has paid for instruction, is allowed ten shillings for every work in drawing, geometry, perspective, or mechanics, executed in a given time, and having merited an honorable mention. A sum not exceeding eighteen francs may be allowed to a scholar for a good drawing of some object of utility or ornament, leaves, flowers copied from nature, or some piece of architecture, or of mechanics from a model, if it has been made in schools during the year. It may be remarked that the artisans who have success in drawing may derive therefrom a profession. After four examinations they receive a diploma in the second degree, and may then be chosen as teachers in the evening schools of the poor. The ministry does not consider itself absolved from all duty towards the towns and villages which should not possess other than free establishment independent of Kensington. It allows awards in these localities, but the largess is not as great, and there is a restrictive clause. The premiums are not remitted in money so long as the professors who teach have not a diploma delivered by the committee. Thus, South Kensington has satisfied the most imperious want, that of diffusion, even in the classes which therefore had not enjoyed the advantages of the least elementary notions of art. Provision was made first for primary schools.

It has instituted also a secondary school in all the United Kingdom, which forms a sequel to that for the poor and the evening classes. there are certain special schools for drawing, they are called simply, "establishments consecrated to instruction in art." They have collections always open for study and the professor of which must have a diploma in the third degree. These collections serve for a particular purpose at Kensington, of which we shall have occasion to speak. The committee gives to the special schools a regular appropriation in money. These are required however to act favorably to the vulgarization of what is taught therein, and to lend their premises several times in the week, and at least two hours each time, for the evening classes of the artisans or workmen. The sum allowed for examinations, those allowed to authors for satisfactory works in drawing, are considerable. The sum of ten pounds is allowed for the scholars who are professors in each establishment frequented by thirty artisans; twenty pounds when the number amounts to one hundred; and ten pounds for every diploma of the third degree delivered after the annual examination at London to an artisan or to a professor instructed in the schools.

The best works are reserved for a great concourse "a national course of competition," which takes place every year at Kensington, to which all the schools of art in the Kingdom are admitted. It is a happy application of the system of emulation which we have established in France with less success for literary studies. Ten gold

medals, ten of silver, ten of bronze, are distributed to authors of the most meritorious works. The scholars may obtain these premiums in the different branches by cumulation. Great excitement is exhibited for the obtaining of a favorable vote; the conquerors do not go to Rome at the expense of the State, but success has a remarkable influence in the fortunes of those who are the lucky recipients of the honors. Those having the most premiums may calculate with certainty upon having employment in the most important manufactures, or in the professing at South Kensington.

There is perhaps occasion to remark here to what extent the principles which govern in the formation of these competitions, are more liberal than those which govern the organization of competition in the schools of France. A nation that has any pretension to consideration and courtesy towards women, are careful to keep them aloof from a strife in which it is supposed they should not naturally have a place. In this respect we are dependent on our ideas of the middle ages, and of religion. It seems that modesty—that is the consecrated expression—which exacted from women, should exempt us from justice towards them, and the greater number of those who have a deliberative voice in those matters, think they are following closely the designs of Providence in keeping one of the sexes in the light and shadow of a cloister. The English are bolder and more just than we are. The women are not excluded from competition in any of the schools. And besides, two of the most honored public premiums, called and known under the name of foundations of the Princess of Wales, are destined for them; these are two pensions, one of about 300 francs, the other of 600, given to the two young ladies who shall have obtained the highest mention in the competition. It must be noted that these two annual premiums, which in certain cases may aid those who obtain them in completing their education, are kept sometimes several years in succession by the winners, but never during more than three years.

The examiners of South Kensington have to pass judgment on that occasion on a great quantity of works of all sorts. In the competition for 1867 there were 600 drawings or paintings of various kinds, and nearly one hundred modeled sketches. These have constituted the best works of the schools. If the results do not correspond to the greatness of the efforts and sacrifices made by the committee, the examiners complain in terms that are sometimes somewhat bitter. Their reproaches are published. In the report for 1867, they say, "we are surprised that the ample opportunities for study, the great facilities allowed for obtaining good models, the liberality in the encouragements offered have not met with a more generous reception. Concerning these recriminations which appear somewhat harsh, it must be said that it relates to that portion of the art which, more than any other, requires an acquired good taste (*bon gout*), modeled on the antique. A people who are new comers will not succeed as well as those they copy, because unable to comprehend the beauty of the objects that are before their eyes. To feel their impression it is necessary to have lived with, and have a long familiarity with the works

of art of ancient times. That weakness and short coming signalized by the examiners in the works of scholars of Kensington, and which can be easily discovered in the bronze and marble statues of the best artists of Great Britain, should not excite surprise.

A high degree of perfection in the arts is not attained without culture, any more than in the culture of a plant, and the Greeks who have remained the masters in statuary did not reach at first to the clear perceptions and the execution of the beautiful forms which they have left us.

At the same time that they frankly expose failures, the members of the committee, by their documents, show that they appreciate partial or general success. The report of 1867, closes after about a page of fully expressed complaints, with a few lines of encouragement for several schools. The manufactured products exhibited with the designs which served for models, and which come from the schools of Dublin, Nottingham, for the carpets, of Kidderminster for wall papers and jewelry, of Birmingham, of Glasgow, and lastly of Kensington, show the favorable influence exercised by the works of these schools upon the industrial works of the country taken altogether.

We see what were the beginnings of South Kensington. First, scholars were instructed. Use was made, in order to avoid the great loss of time for selections, of all the elements at hand, good, bad, or indifferent, as is shown by the reports of the inspectors of Kensington. The most pressing was to be accomplished. It was known that scholars would in due time become masters, that these would be found among them by a sort of natural selection and by the force of circumstances, a nursery would be formed, in which professors would be formed, and be found capable to transmit instruction to students, of a higher grade than that first attained in the schools. The normal national school of art, *art training school*, was opened for men and women. The course of instruction, according to prospectus, consisted in giving to professors, of both sexes, "the knowledge that would serve to develop the application of art to the common usages of life, and to the wants of commerce and manufactures." The objects are then clearly defined. It is not with high art that they have to deal, it is art susceptible of professional application for immediate use. Particular schools are dedicated to the instruction of school masters of parishes and other establishments, to enable them to teach the elements of drawing, "as a part of general education, at the same time as writing." This is an entire reform in education. Although not much noise is made with it, yet, it is serious and significant. The discreet proposition to teach drawing at the same time with writing, might be a subject of reflection for the legislators of our schools if they will notice it; we shall content ourselves now with calling attention to it.

The scholars who wish to become teachers in the schools of art, after showing that they have the knowledge and capacity requisite, are admitted gratuitously when a vacancy occurs. As soon as they have the certificate for the first degree, they can obtain assistance

to aid them to live while studying, and which amount to about 20 francs per week. On their side they incur certain obligations. They must engage to accept positions that are offered to them as professors, and also, for certain works, they take the place of the professors. This aid is allowed for one session only, that is six months, and are renewed if necessary. There is a desire, and a very proper one, to form female professors, and women sometimes receive the above sum during two or three years to succeed in obtaining the diploma for the third class. The prospectus shows complication enough to require considerable time, and might discourage such as are left to their own resources, and which it is important to assist. The studies comprise twenty-three degrees, which are divided into six groups. They begin with the elements of drawing, embrace perspective, then the anatomy of the human body, and finish with painting, sculpture, architecture, not that of public monuments, but of dwellings and industrial ornaments. Salaries are attached to each diploma obtained. The students of the school of arts sometimes enter the normal school with a salary of 50 francs per week. They are those who specialty is to be to make designs for manufactures, or for industrial arts. We may remark that even the studies of human anatomy are not interdicted to women, and that notwithstanding the rigor of certain prejudices ingrafted in our usages and customs, they are freely admitted. We are not aware, that notwithstanding the superiority to which we so firmly lay claim in matters of taste, sciences, and arts, such instruction has been accorded to women in any school in our country.

To all these various studies, which embrace in practice all that is necessary for special artists to know, it was necessary to add a great collection, a museum. The National Gallery, and the British Museum, are no more sufficient than would be with us the galleries of the Louvre. They furnished no instruction by the eyes, nor any material for work directly useful to the scholars of certain professional schools. The duties imposed by the situation have been complied with; ample provision has been made for every thing necessary. The museum of South Kensington contains objects having reference to history, to theory, and to the practice of the art of decoration. A realization has been made on a large scale of what was attempted in France some years since in the *union centrale des beaux arts appliqués à l'industrie*. (Central union of the fine arts applied to practical purposes.) The founders of the *union centrale*, having had at their disposal insufficient means, have been enabled to do little more than inaugurate the work. At Kensington the museum has been fully organized. It can but grow richer by acquisitions and future donations. Thus, it is already announced that a collection has been made of *aquarelle* paintings, a line which has long been patronized by the English, and in which they have been successful. Even now the collections contain all the essential elements. Sculpture, ornamental painting, engraving, enamelling, *les laques*, wax-works, glass, jewelry, works on metal, arms, tissues for the clothing of the rich and poor, are represented at the same time as the drawings from which the artisans executed the works.

Whilst with us it is thought to be impossible to give to scholars otherwise than by photography an idea of the finest plastic works of human genius, the English without loss of time have solved the problem. They have sought for and found the practical means to establish expositions in the towns and villages when they have been desired and patronized by a few persons. At this day special exhibitions abundantly supplied with objects of art can be organized every where. These ambulatory exhibitions, prepared with care, and accommodated to the aptitudes of the various places for which they are destined, are calculated to have results which will have much importance. Without exaggerating the power of education by the eyes, without according implicit faith to the marvellous Hellenic legends on the power of grand and beautiful forms and the ideas which they suggest, it cannot but be considered an important matter for populations heretofore the most ignorant, to enter into communication with a world unknown to them, and to be as it were partly initiated to art. This initiation is not entirely gratuitous. A certain effort is required and also a light retribution. The directory of science and art does not itself organize these exhibitions, it only contributes—it calls upon individuals, "in order that every interesting object in the district may be added to its own collections." This is a very ingenious mode of proceeding to realize an exhibition at the same time that a searching inquiry is made for common utility. Measures must be taken by the local committee of the school or town to the effect that the buildings are in good condition and made safe against accidents, and that they be kept open night and day. The greater part of the time the local committee pays the expenses of transportation no further than to the exhibition. Objects are kept ready, inclosed in boxes, portraits frames, or under glass. They consist of reproductions of statues, copies of drawings, cartoons of the great masters, enamels, engravings, photographs, black and colored. If there be no demands, collections of such articles as may be wanted are sent to the schools or manufacturing towns. The price of admittance is moderate, and less in the evening than in the day, in order that persons compelled to work during the day may have the opportunity of attending these exhibitions. The artisans who study in the schools are exempted from payment of entrance fees. For two nights in the week they are fixed at one penny. We should prefer that it be entirely gratuitous, but that the local committees would not be able to cover the expense. Sometimes they do make a profit, which of right, belongs to the school for which the exhibition is made. The committee of South Kensington has organized besides, if not for towns, at least for its schools of art, a traveling library. This last, a society of men of progress have attempted to establish in France, but for reasons not easily defined it has met with no favor. These small libraries are not to be compared in richness with that of the metropolis of art at Kensington, which besides being a library is also a cabinet of engravings, drawings and photographs; there has been also introduced into it every thing having a tendency to develop taste and for the acquisition of knowledge for

the artisan. The high priced books and collections remain permanently at the special schools, the other travel constantly from town to town.

It would be a mistake to suppose that the central committee limits the sphere of its action to the limits of the United Kingdom. It has a higher ambition and goes further. In the common interest it has undertaken a crusade to foreign parts, with the view of executing a European inventory of fire works in the galleries, museum, and collections. What it requires is a particular catalogue of each class, which may be united in a general one, just as history is made up of documents, memorials and monographies. It invites the corporations of all the towns to contribute to this work by making up an inventory of all that they possess which is remarkable. At its instance letters have issued from the *foreign office* to request of the representatives of the Queen at Dresde, Paris, Munich, Berlin, Turin and Rome to hasten this enterprise, which confers an honor on British enterprise.

We have been considering the means, let us now examine the results produced. In the great exhibition between nations of 1867, what was the rank of England? We do not speak of the special exhibition in arts, which was of a nature better calculated to create astonishment by its singularity than to call for admiration for extraordinary achievements. For those who expected to find a gleam of the sculptural art of the Greeks in its calm serenity, or of the great paintings of the great times, it is evident that the unsettled and singular genius of the English has not been signalized for victory in this sense. If our attention be called to the industrial products where art is introduced, such as textile fabrics, furniture, crockery-ware, our impressions will be different. No doubt, it will be argued that England has at a great expense taken from us many of our foremost workers. Let us confine ourselves to the specimens furnished from the works of the schools. There will be found in truth in the English section, only the works from the Kensington school, and those which have correspondence with the ministry or directory of science and art; it is from these we shall derive the most precise information, where we shall meet with the most severe control, and where the documents furnished will merit the greatest confidence.

Two revolving glass cases, contained, together with a choice of models proposed for study, also the works of scholars, children and adults. The models borrowed from the works of masters, were not always judiciously chosen, they were often complicated, overcharged with lines, curves, movement and colors, which are serious defects in objects which should be reproduced with the least departure possible in the interpretation. The models, no doubt, will improve, together with improvement in other matters—the reports show that there was due sobriety in ornament, that there was harmony, and no pretension to excessive show or effect, and no abuse of light and shade. As to the works of the scholars, otherwise considerably mixed and such as may be looked for in a sincere and conscientious exhibition, they gave evidence of work executed in a right direction. And this is the essential point. An enlightened direction

alone will prevent men, although well disposed, from losing their time and pains, and setting themselves back by attending to small and puerile details, which give exercise neither to the eye or hand, and have no other virtue, than patience. A rigorous and rapid method is indispensable for the teaching of drawing to men of whom great efforts are not expected, and who come to school only in the evening, after their days' labor is finished. This has been well understood in England. Some of the drawings have an extraordinary merit of execution, free, precise and close. This cannot be said of all, except it be for those in mechanics or geometrical ornamentation, which are drawn by rule and compass. But we have seen some human faces, of those which are called academical, drawn with great truth in red pencil, in various attitudes, in a certain number of minutes from the living model. These exercises, no doubt, are proper only for scholars somewhat advanced, for it is more necessary to learn well than fast.

All these works belong to the theoretical part of the arts—but others less noted, and of more direct utility, represented furniture of wood, bronzes, forged iron, minutely reproduced, shaded with crayons or water colors of one tint, and giving out with truth the various aspects of wood and metal. The ornaments, flowers, fruits, all which we call dead nature, and which the English call still life, were all of rigorously detailed execution, but sometimes heavy. It requires time and study for the artist and the artisan to acquire steadiness and lightness of hand. Lightness without science produces redundancy of forms as unpleasing to the eye as heaviness. As to the landscapes, we avow in justice, that they were as bad as the most ordinary of our schools, and the teaching in this respect appears to us to be of inexcusable weakness.

In England, for the teaching and vulgarization of drawing no one city has the monopoly. Every thing is not luckily centered in London. In France if Paris has not the exclusive privilege, at least the others are inferior. All that has come from the departments shows but here and there some isolated efforts, which have not always been successful, as much by the indifference of the parents and scholars, as by the want of an enlightened direction to their efforts. It may be asserted that, with exception of some towns, such as Lyons, Dijon, Nancy, Valenciennes and Toulouse, the teaching in drawing is of a low grade. What is the cause of this inferiority? The cause is not single, determined and distinct and consequently easy to eradicate. There are several, the insufficiency in the teaching, in general, the insufficiency of the school building, badly distributed and provided, and badly lighted. In some parishes the school house is nothing more than an old stable, and has but half light and unfavorable for any works of writing or drawing. Add to this the short time that is allotted by the scholars to study, the complete ignorance in drawing of the teachers and the scarcity of models of any value; attempts are being made to supply these and it is to be hoped that they will be successful. What will for a long time be wanting is the means of making these acquisitions, the intelligence of the benefits to be deriv-

ed from drawing, the taste and desire for such things. On this subject no interest is felt in the country and will not be until education is extended on other subjects also, more essential. We have so much to create in matters of education that it is difficult to point out on what points it is most urgent.

However, the impulsion has been given and it is to be expected it will continue, especially more in towns on account of their richness than in the country. Paris, six years ago, had but 1300 scholars in drawing, it has now 10,000, this figure is suggestive enough not to require commentary. Notwithstanding the great progress attained by the city of London, it cannot in this respect rival Paris. The gratuitous schools for drawing in Paris, although established only since 1766, that is 10 years later than Strasbourg and six years later than those of Nantes, yet, Paris having once established its supremacy, has kept it up. In 1846 the budget for primary instruction in Paris had reached to over one million and yet the city did not have to itself the administration of any school for drawing. She was content with making an appropriation of 30,000 francs to the establishment charged with teaching it. Now the expenses of primary municipal schools is five millions. One other city in the world spends more than Paris, it is New York. The amount appropriated there for schools would be sufficient for the support of a moderate size European state; it is provided for chiefly by private donations. It is very different in France. In Paris only 12,000 francs come from donations or legacies. However, that may be, there is no occasion for complaint in the cause of art. In 1867 more than 300,000 francs were expended for the teaching of drawing alone.

We have said that England had made liberal appropriations for the teaching of drawing to women. Besides the special schools, of recent organization in Paris, for women, several attempts have been made for the introduction and taste for drawing among young women and girls, in the view of creating for them an honorable profession. One has been lately established similar to those founded by Madame de Maintenon in Montrency in 1674, and later at Reuil and Choisy, and transformed during the first empire under the name of house of Saint Denis, and known by the title of Notre Dame des Arts, and developed more rapidly. It has been transferred to the chateau of Madame Adelaide, in the Parc of Neuilly. It is, properly speaking, a college for the instruction of female artists and for female professors for the primary schools of practical arts for young ladies. The price of tuition is 1200 francs and double for foreign scholars. This great concession in favor of French nationality astonished us and is to be regretted. However, Notre Dame numbers 140 scholars, under the direction of 18 persons, assisted by 15 "auxiliaries," who are former scholars. The state, the department, and the city of Paris, each contribute. As to the prospectus, instruction is sufficiently complete. The scholar at the same time that she is receiving a classical education, learns a practical art, for the most part, one related to drawing, such as ornamentation, tapestry, embroidering, and the fabrica-

tion of artificial flowers, a beautiful art, suitable for women, and in which it is important that we should not be surpassed. Sometimes, also, painting, particularly painting on china ware, on crockery and enamelling, and engraving on wood and metal. To this, is also joined a course of high practical studies, which the eminent scholars may continue four years more. Notre Dame wants yet a library to be the chief school for the teaching of women. It is, however, now in the power of all those occupied in industrial pursuits, having relation to art, to enjoy the advantages of the school or to aid it in a certain measure. The societies of departments and towns, the chambers of commerce and of arts, should make donations for primary schools, or local art schools—which would be following the example of England. It would not be in this alone that we would be imitating our neighbors across the Straits; if it be true that preparations are being made for a department of art applied to industrial pursuits, and the establishment of a central school for the higher branches of instruction to industrial artists.

It must be remarked, that in France, so far, the education in art has been restricted to towns. The utility and necessity of it is apparent; the advantage derived by boys from the art of drawing, may be assimilated to that which the girls in the rural schools derive from learning to sew. It may be asked if more should not be expected, and that the elements should be vulgarized in all places. The official reports say, that perfection in the various processes for moulding may be taught without much cost to the children of the poorest villages, and may give them the inspirations of Athens and Phidias, without a master. This is a fine dream, but which is not soon to be realized. It will be many years before the little museums are established. In the mean time there may be something to be done. We do not think that the difficulties in the way are great, but they may be overcome. It is said the towns may furnish professors. This is unfortunately true, but the objection is more specious than solid. They, themselves, own they are not expert in calligraphy. They are, however, to a certain extent, able to teach writing and other branches. Some of them, aided by clear and progressive methods, would be able to give elementary lessons and excite the taste for drawing among their scholars, and to which they are generally disposed. Before forming letters, children try to draw images. We may, any of us, remember our rude attempts in that line, and the joy derived from it. For want of direction and cultivation, this happy disposition is lost. Goethe says: "we write too much, and do not draw enough"—and Goethe was right; three lines properly joined together, give a better idea of a triangle than all possible descriptions. The merit in drawing is to speak to the eyes, when the tongue fails. The day when the elements of drawing shall be possessed by all, men will have a new tool in their hands, and a great service will have been rendered to them.

ART. V.—TALES OF THE SOUTHLAND.

MY OLD BEAU.

[BY XARIFFA.]

To-day he tumbled head first from a long unused work basket I was taking from an upper shelf and fell at my feet. Of course I do not mean that he made the descent in the body, nor yet in the spirit; but in such form as old Sol in partnership with certain plates and chemicals, bestowed upon him in the early days of daguerreotypes.

He lay on the floor looking up at me so helplessly that the smile of merriment with which I at first greeted his appearance changed to one of commiseration as I picked him up in my fingers and held him off at arms length. He had suffered in the descent; was injured in the region of the neck tie and considerably shattered about the head. Still, I could make out the once familiar features; the womanish curve of the lips, the pale and narrow forehead, the keen black eyes and the clustering hair of the same hue which might have well become some young Italian bandit.

He had a wonderfully magic touch with the pencil, drew splendid pictures of scenes that never existed, sang well, could play the guitar, and in addition spoke, besides English, French, Spanish and Italian: At least little songs sung to me he informed me were in one or the other of these languages; but had he asserted the jargon to be Hebrew or Choctaw I must have believed him, as I myself was quite innocent of lingual accomplishments and could use no tongue but my own.

He called himself Don Caspar de Manco and as he had fallen from his horse prostrated by sun stroke just in front of my uncles door he had been picked up and borne into the house where, with true Southern hospitality he had been nursed back to convalescence in the enjoyment of the kindest care.

We lived then on a plantation which was called frog plains on account of the vast number of those bell throated inhabitants which at nightfall congregated along the shores of a neighboring bayou and swung out their notes in full orchestral overture along the weedy banks. It is a pet theory of mine that the frogs, those minstrels of the marshes, have never been duly appreciated beyond the French palates which they tickle. As musicians, in their own peculiar style, they are unsurpassed. Their choice localities the sedgy bank or dank morass are rendered vocal with notes which, if not sweet are certainly not discordant. One may often detect the different parts distributed with no mean degree of skill for amateur performers. Tenor we find assigned to their cousins and near neighbors the tree toad, Soprano to a group of capital timists at the very edge of the water; Barytone to a full voiced company in regulation green coats and goggles a little further in the marsh, while on a log in the very center of the pond sits the *Basso profundo* who in deep, sepulchral

tones sings out *good joke ! good joke !* a full chorus in himself. If people would not educate themselves to despise it they might find an infinite amount of satisfaction in giving themselves up, on hot summer nights, to the fascinations of a Frog Opera.

During his convalescence, for fever had followed his *coup de soleil* and his recovery was slow, it was Don Caspar's delight to sit upon the broad gallery sometimes talking, but more frequently silent, while the croaking concert went on in the cool retreats of the bayou. Once or twice he brought out my guitar, and with no unskilful fingers essayed an accompaniment to the big eyed vocalists who without noticing the interruption went on in dignified order with their performance. "Ah !" he would then exclaim, there is much more of a frog than his hind legs ; 'tis a pity people do not find it out.

Having arrived in a most unceremonious manner at our gate with no baggage but a small portmanteau strapped to his saddle, the Don had been obliged to send an express to the nearest city for a wardrobe for which he had paid liberal prices in Spanish gold. His horse, a fleet footed animal ate his oats and made himself at home in the green pastures of our plantation with an air of as much mysterious silence as surrounded his master. As the days went by, it was evident to me that my uncle was growing accustomed to and enjoyed the society of the stranger. It relieved in a measure the monotony of his daily life, and gave a new channel to his thoughts. We lived remote from neighbors, a governess who superintended my education my uncle Charles and myself, with the usual number of house servants completing our family. A short distance from the mansion, midway between it and the sugar house stood the negro quarter, a collection of neat white cabins about the doors of which played the pickaninnies of the sable mothers, careless and merry as the day was long. The owners of the adjoining plantation lived nearly five miles further back on the bayou and their family consisted of Colonel Larue and five sons who occasionally came over with horses and hounds and joined my uncle on a hunting excursion.

Living, as it were, isolated in this manner, it was no wonder uncle Charles entertained with pleasure a guest of such gentle mien and education as De Manco evinced. His manner was that of a person of refinement and though he often relapsed into fits of taciturnity almost amounting to gloom, he well understood the art of making himself agreeable. My uncle, a man of too much delicacy of feeling to put direct inquiries to one forced by illness to accept his care and hospitality, contented himself with such knowledge of his guest as chance remarks let fall by Don Caspar enabled him to gather. He alluded often to his estates in Cuba, gave us charming descriptions of coffee plantations, often drew for my amusement pictures of quaint old buildings in Havana and told me traditions connected therewith, but he never by the slightest hint betrayed by what chance or mischance he had arrived at our out of the way plantation on a Louisiana bayou.

Of his mother he spoke with warm and tender feeling. This latter trait caused me to regard him with a kindness which otherwise I could never have felt toward him. Motherless myself from my infancy, I could fully understand and appreciate the blessing of such a parents loving care; and a son's devotion to a mother was a noble virtue which awakened my sympathy and esteem. Beyond this I could see nothing to admire in Don Casper. Slight, dark and with girlish hands and feet, even his accomplishments of an effeminate order, he was of too weak a type of manhood to rouse within me any of that admiration I was not slow to accord to true manly attributes. I felt toward him as I might to a sick girl and treated him accordingly. I had never heard myself accused of being unwomanly in my tastes or manners; but I really felt so much more of a man than the young Spaniard looked, that if he dropped his handkerchief it was the most natural thing in the world for me to stoop to pick it up, and when he went to mount his horse I was aminated by an absurd degree of chivalrous galantry that almost tempted me to offer my hand to lift him to his stirrup.

Now there was Jack Larue the youngest son of our neighbor the Colonel, who, without being more to me than an intimate acquaintance much more closely approached my *beau ideal*. We had known each other from childhood, and he had borne my little weight upon his boyish shoulders many a time when in our long summer-day rambles my weary feet could no longer keep pace with the sturdy stride of his own. He had been a stout, stalwart boy and was now a strong, splendid specimen of a man; standing six feet two in his hunting boots, with depth and breadth of chest, strength of limb, a frank, manly face and a manner at once dignified and winning. He was the best shot, the swiftest runner, the bravest rider and most untiring swimmer in all the country round. It had more than once occurred to me that my governess had discovered and estimated at their full value Jack's many good qualities. She was a quiet, reserved girl, several years my senior and vastly my superior in judgment, learning and accomplishments. She hated her vocation—rebelled against the circumstances that forced her to embrace it, and I sometimes fancied would gladly take advantage of any avenue which offered her a chance of escape. She did not attempt to conceal her aversion for her position, but at the same time conscientiously performed every duty pertaining to it, and if she failed to win my affection she at least gave me no reason to find fault with her. Her manners were good, her style *distingue*, and my uncle considered Miss Van Doane a most valuable addition to our household.

When Don Caspar had been with us about a month, Jack Larue rode over one moonlight night to arrange a hunt with Uncle Charles for the following Monday. As he cantered his light limbed grey across the lawn toward us, de Manco sprang suddenly to his feet and took a step or two toward the door of his own room. I had often observed this nervousness at the approach of strangers, and attributed it to the effects of his recent illness. As he passed me now, I said "pray keep your seat Don Caspar, I want you to know Mr.

Larue" and the next instant Jack, followed by Osceola, a magnificent dog of the pure Newfoundland breed, joined us; shaking hands with Uncle Charles in his hearty way, bowing pleasantly to Miss Van Doane and myself, then receiving a formal introduction to the young Spaniard, whose ease of manner with his first glance at Jack seemed restored to him.

Hitherto I had never seen the Don really at his best advantage. This night he was brilliant. Brilliant, I mean in his own peculiar flow of small talk—songs and story, with which he entertained Miss Van Doane and me while Jack and Uncle Charles talked over the approaching day of sport. When refreshments were brought in, Gertrude Van Doane rose to superintend their distribution and Don Caspar sauntered to the other end of the room to search for a song of which we had been speaking. The Newfoundland rose from his masters feet, came toward me and laid his noble head in my lap. A minute or two elapsed, then Jack himself came and took the empty chair at my side.

"You and Uncle Charles," I said, "have been so much occupied talking horses and hounds that you lost Don Caspar's music."

"By no means," he answered, "I heard every song and all his efforts to be witty."

I took no notice of the slur conveyed in the last words, but asked in a low tone.

"And what do you think of our guest?"

"Well," replied Jack with one of his deep single noted laughs, while he ran his fingers through his light curly hair, "he is certainly the most *lady-like* young gentleman I ever met."

I could not help laughing, the term seemed so exactly appropriate, and at that moment Uncle Charles joined us and informed me that he and Jack had arranged that Gertrude and myself should join them on Monday morning with Don Caspar and ride with them till they started the game and as much longer as we chose, but as our guest was not yet fully recovered, he presumed he was not able to endure a full days sport, so that he had better return with the ladies to the mansion. We can all come back here for refreshments, you know Marguerite, he continued, and you can order something particularly suited to the appetites of six or eight hungry men. As we all cheerfully acquiesced in this arrangement, Jack soon took his leave; and as Miss Van Doane and I reached our chamber, and threw open the window to admit the flower scented breeze, the tinkle of a guitar came sweetly up accompanied by De Manco's well trained voice, singing a pretty little Spanish serenade.

My first impulse was to close the window.

"Don't!" said Miss Van Doane laying her hand upon my arm.

"Pardon me!" I said—"I jumped at the conclusion that he intended the song for me—I am glad it is for yourself. I shall leave you to listen," I added "for I had had quite enough of music before we came up stairs."

"Nonsense, Marguerite!" she said drawing me down beside her. "He serenades you, and no one else. You would not surely be so rude as to close the window, upon the song of so gallant a cavalier, who, only half recovered from illness, exposes himself to the night air all for one fair lady's sake."

"He's a goose," I said "and to-morrow he'll have a cold in his head and an excuse perhaps for staying here two or three months longer!"

Miss Van Doane looked shocked! It is not possible she said that you grudgingly bestow hospitality upon a stranger sick and friendless in a strange land."

"By no means; but I do not care to have the term of his suffering extended indefinitely by unnecessary exposure to the night air, that's all."

Miss Van Doane gave me a meaning smile. "You cannot deceive me, she said, if you do yourself. I see plainly enough why Don Caspar lingers; he finds his heart entangled in Marguerite's charms and cannot free himself. This is why he recovers so slowly and lingers so long."

I laughed outright and ridiculed the idea. True, I was very young, I had never had a lover, still nothing in my companion's assertion flattered my vanity.

"Indeed," she continued, watching me narrowly meanwhile, "I have seen signs of this for many days. Don Caspar is completely fascinated, and to speak truly, I have almost wondered at it; for men of his culture and refinement usually select women of the utmost elegance, and versed in the ways of the world; but your beauty, dear, and your girlish grace stand you in stead, and have fairly captivated him. Listen!" she added, and just then the minstrel chose another theme and sang in soft, earnest tones a tender song of unrequited love and the dulcet voice threw into the words a deep and unmistakeable meaning.

I leaned timidly over the window sill till I caught a glimpse of the singer. He looked very handsome standing there in the moonlight; his white brow, shaded by its heavy hair, uplifted, a short Spanish mantle falling gracefully back from his shoulders, his face full of a sad and tender passion, while his white, slender fingers seemed to make the strings of the instrument repeat the words he uttered.

As the song ceased, Miss Van Doane drew a deep sigh, "What a boon" she whispered, "to be loved like this"—then leaning suddenly forward she said "give him some acknowledgement, Marguerite, here, toss him these flowers."

She caught from my hand a cluster of snowy cape jasmines and cast them down at De Manco's feet—I saw him catch them eagerly up and press them to his lips—then he disappeared among the shrubbery.

"I would not have had you do that for the world!" I exclaimed turning angrily to Miss Van Doane. "Those jasmines Jack Larue brought me this very evening, I had no acknowledgements to make

to that contemptible little Spaniard and you assumed entirely too much in making them for me."

"I am very sorry!" Miss Van Doane said deprecatingly. Had I have known you placed so high a value on trifles brought you by Mr. Larue I would not have deprived you of the flowers.

I bit my lip with vexation. I saw Miss Van Doane was determined to misunderstand me or pretend that she did, and I kept silent.

"I must own that your indifference surprises me" went on my governess in her cool even way. "It is evident to me, and it must be to your uncle, that Don Caspar is a man of noble birth, fine fortune and in every way a most desirable match."

"Set your own cap for him then"—I answered curtly. "Rest assured I would never interfere."

Miss Van Doane smiled, bent and kissed me as one might a pettish child and said no more.

The next morning as I sat upon the gallery feeding and playing with a pet mocking bird Jack came dashing up to the steps on horseback and tossing the rein to a servant asked for Uncle Charles saying he wished to communicate something to him he had quite forgotten last night. Telling him where to find my uncle I coaxed Osceola, who as usual accompanied his master, to remain by me; and putting by my bird I sat fondling the dog; burying my hands in his long shaggy hair, as he stood watching me with his great loving eyes till suddenly Jack's whistle called him from me.

"Ha, ha, old fellow!" Jack said as the dog leaped up and pawed upon him, "I only wanted to find out if you were swearing fealty to a new love." You see Marguerite—"he said smiling and coming toward me "I shall be fearfully jealous if you win his love."

"Jealous senior?" said de Manco at that moment joining us, his face wearing a nonchalant expression almost amounting to insolence, "jealous? your people, believe me, do not know the meaning of the word."

"The word, like others, may have its *shades* of meaning, Don Caspar," responded Jack. "I could not stoop to be jealous of ordinary beings. I alluded to my dog sir." Yet, even while he spoke a sudden, strange light came into Jack's face and eyes, and caused me to turn my head. His cape jasmines were ostentatiously displayed in de Manco's button hole!

"So, little one," said Jack, bending down so that only I might catch his words, "you adorn a stranger, do you, with an old friend's gift?"

Before I could answer he was gone; waving his hand in adieu as he rode down the avenue with Osceola bounding along at his horses heels.

As I looked up I fancied I could detect on Senor de Manco's face a half smile of insolent triumph. It puzzled me. Could enmity have been born for each other between these two men with their first interchange of glances? I could not believe it. If Jack felt anything toward the Spaniard, I knew it was contempt; if de Manco

resented aught, it must be the discovery of this sentiment, only half concealed in Jack's manner.

As I mused Don Caspar spoke—

"You see, *Senorita*, delicate as they are I have not allowed a breath of blight to touch your blossoms. While they bloom I shall treasure them; when they die I shall cherish their ashes."

"Pardon me, Don Caspar, but your gallant speech is addressed to the wrong person. It was not I who threw you the flowers, but Miss Gertrude Van Doane."

"Do you speak truth," he said casting a quick searching glance upon me.

"Do you presume to doubt?"

There then! he cried and crushing the hapless flowers in his hand he tossed them far out in the long grass where they sank out of sight just as Miss Van Doane joined us on the gallery.

I was sure by the gleam in her eye and the compression of her lips she had heard and seen all! yet her manner retained its pliant grace and her tongue its accustomed sweetness when she addressed me, and if she really felt any resentment at Don Caspar's ungallant act it was carefully concealed. She omitted no opportunity to sound his praises in my ear when we were alone. Painted in glowing colors the happy home, his wealth and love would bestow upon the fortunate winner of his heart until I more than half believed, my governess coveted the prize herself. He is certainly a very pretty little fellow I would say in response to her eulogistic comments, and beyond this rather dubious commendation I could not conscientiously go. I could as soon have fallen in love with my French doll as with *Senor de Manco*. Monday came at last. It was a beautiful scent-laying morning, and hunters, hounds and horses as they stood grouped before the door seemed equally impatient for the start. Miss Van Doane, Don Caspar and myself, already seated in our saddles waited for the word. It was given at last and we were off scouring away over the dewy fields, leaping ditches, dashing through shadowy copses, among the odorous pines or under the cool deep shade of magnolia groves, till at last Don Caspar and I rode along together; a glimpse of some distant, dashing hunter, or the bay of some far off hound telling us the hunt went bravely on. Miss Van Doane had dashed away at Jack's side half an hour before. I was too tired longer to attempt to keep up with the party, and we rode slowly forward hoping to meet her coming to rejoin us.

I took off my riding hat and let the wind blow freely through my tossed and tangled curls and over my burning cheeks. The song of the mocking bird fell sweetly upon the ear, the fresh air was sweetened by the breath of odorous blossoms, there was a delicious calm in the quiet motion of the horses after our late fast riding and mercy only knows, why Don Caspar chose that moment to offer me his hand and heart! He plead well and warmly, his words full of the passionate ardor of his clime and race. I was vexed, confused and pained.

What could I give in return but a courteous and decided refusal? I seem to see at this moment the strange gleam that shot into his eye as he realized the import of my words, and his bloodless lips muttered something in his native tongue I could not understand.

Thoroughly annoyed, and half startled, I urged my horse into a quicker gait, when the sudden report of a gun in the hands of some wandering bird hunters, near at hand, caused the animal to start suddenly aside and with a sudden spring forward the bridle was jerked from my careless hands and fell forward over the mare's head. Don Caspar and I were literally running away together; his horse keeping pace with the flying feet of mine, and I grasping the front of my saddle with both hands, was borne away over brush and brier, and ditch, and stile, riding extempore steeple chase which I began to think would eventually end in the destruction of both horse and rider. We leaped at last a low hedge, which brought us into the broad, dusty highway. I ventured to free my left hand, to grasp the pommel with my right, and resting on the stirrup I leaned forward till I grasped the dangling rein. I worked it gently toward me through my fingers till I had shortened it sufficiently to fling it back over the mare's neck. As I accomplished that, I sat back in my saddle, grasped the rein in both hands, and brought the runaway to a stand still; while Don Caspar with break-neck speed dashed by me—shortened his rein, as he saw me safe, gave it one jerk with which it parted in twain and as a natural consequence the Spaniard with his dainty heels high in air turned a back sommersault which would have done credit to a circus rider, and came over the tail of his horse neatly measuring his length in the dusty road.

Before he could pick himself up Jack Larue came tearing out of a copse just ahead of us, his horse in a foam and his own face pale as ashes. "I saw it all" he said as he reached me, "I had a hope of helping you by heading your horse at yonder turn" then, as Don Caspar rose from the dirt, *Pobrecito!* (poor little thing) he whispered to me in the Dons own language, and seeing him unhurt dashed off again saying they had a fine stag up and would probably be home sooner than they had expected.

I saw by the look on de Mancu's face, he had overhead Jack's unfortunate epithet; yet as I looked at him, so small and dainty, standing there, his dapper little clothes all dusty and his chapeau crushed, its appropriateness struck me so ludicrously I could scarcely restrain my mirth.

"You must be very weary *Senorita*," he said gently.

"Do not think of me" I answered, and I drew out my handkerchief and dusted Don Caspar off, much as I might have done some choice china ornament, or the wing of a bruised butterfly.

As he tied his broken bridle and remounted, Miss Van Doane cool, self possessed, and apparently not a bit wearied, with her mornings exercise, rode slowly up to us,

"An accident?" she asked with a lift of her eyebrows.

"Nothing serious" I answered.

"I don't know how we became separated" she continued "but after I once lost you I failed to find you till I struck your horses hoof prints in the high road."

"Do they expect to be home soon?" I asked.

"To a late lunch, probably" she replied then we cantered slowly homeward.

After an hours rest, I called the servant and ordered a repast spread out of doors. I chose a grove of pecan trees which grew on the banks of the bayou. Thither tables were carried and a bountiful repast soon laid. Osceola who had been left at our house by Jack in the morning followed my steps to and fro, with a grave dignity, as if he were commander in chief of all the forces.

While the sun was yet high, the hunters came riding home, their game on the back of a led horse, and their spirits exhilarated with the ardor and success of the chase. After some slight attention to the bath and toilette, they came out led by uncle, Charles, to the grove. I thought, as they approached there could not be found six handsomer men than the Larues, father and sons, as they came forward all in high health and spirits, apparently in the best of humor with themselves and the world.

"Where is de Manco," asked my uncle.

"We have not seen him since our return." I answered.

"People say," said Leon Larue with a sly glance at me "that the secret of his prolonged stay among us is well know to Miss Marguerite here."

"Nonsense," exclaimed my uncle, "the man is not able to go away yet, when he is, there is nothing to detain him here," and he gave me a warm, affectionate smile of confidence.

"The ride he endured this morning, said Gustave, the elder son, would have carried him quite a bit on his road, if he had gone in a direct line; I'll take a slice of the cold fowl Colonel."

"That was a 'will ye vill ye ride,'" I ventured to say. "I led the way, and Don Caspar could not help himself."

"Of course not," said Colonel Larue, with a laugh. "None of us poor fellows can help ourselves when you ladies lead the way. Pray let us know, my dear young lady, if you intend this lead of yours to end at the altar."

"If you do," said Jack, in a low voice to me, "you ought to put a blue ribbon around the little fellows neck, and fasten him to your belt as you would any pet poodle. He would make a capital lap dog."

I tried to look reproachful, but just then the Don approached us in an immaculate suit of white linen, such a contrast to the strong, tall men standing about the table, that it seemed as if he had arrived expressly to enforce Jack's comparison.

I had kept a place for him at the table between my uncle and Miss Van Doane. He thanked me for the attention as he accepted it, the meal went merrily on to its close; and as I gave the order for coffee, we rose from the table, preferring to take the fragrant cup of mocha walking, or standing, about among the trees.

During the interval I amused myself by throwing sticks into the bayou and seeing Osceola plunge in to bring them out. He had repeated the act two or three times when finally de Manco tore a weed from the bank and after several feints which had given the dog numerous false starts he finally flung it out into the deepest part of the stream.

Osceola dutifully plunged in after it, seized and brought it to the shore and laid it at de Manco's feet. There, with one tremendous shake of his huge body he spattered the muddy water all over him, freckling his white suit from top to toe! A sort of white wrath gathered in de Manco's face, and catching up a riding whip which lay on the grass he struck the dog a sharp stinging blow across the forehead.

The newfoundland gave one astonished glance out of his great affectionate eyes and uttered a low whine. De Manco raised his arm to repeat the blow, but the descending wrist was caught in Jack's vice-like grip. "Hold sir!" he said in deep suppressed tones of anger, "you strike your superior when you smite that dog."

Like lightning de Manco twisted himself into a position to front his opponent then struck him, as he stood bending over him, with his flat hand full in the face.

Every Larue was on his feet in a second; but Jack, with one sudden and unexpected movement caught the incensed Spaniard by the collar and with one lift of his mighty arm flung Don Caspar straight out into the bayou.

He sank, rose, struggled and sank again.

"Oh my God," I cried. "Jack, how awful! for shame! you see he cannot swim."

"Fish him out Osceola," was Jack's brief order, and in plunged the noble brute and in a few minutes brought the half drowned man to shore.

So ridiculous was the figure he cut as drenched and dripping he stood upon the bank spitting and sputtering and even more full of wrath than he was of water that I turned away as much to conceal my own amusement as to spare the unfortunate Don, the mortification of having me witness his discomfiture. "You shall answer for this Senor," he said as soon as he could speak, shaking his small clenched fist at Jack. "At your service at any time sir" was the cool and unconcerned reply.

"No, no, gentlemen," said my uncle coming forward, "call it quits now, and say no more about it. You struck him, Don Caspar, re-

member you gave him a blow and he resented it."

"Aye, but not as a gentlemen would," hissed de Manco he shall fight me. I demand satisfaction, I say he shall fight me.

"Another David and Goliath affair gentlemen," said Jack, with most provoking absence of anger.

"Insolent coward!" hissed de Manco.

"Choose your own time and place to prove that sir," was Jack's response, with a cool downward glance at the Don.

"Gentlemen! gentlemen! I protest!" said uncle Charles, his usually rosy, smiling face now stern and determined. "I have requested that this quarrel be dropped, I now command it, Jack my old friend, you, I know will accede to my wishes, and you, Senor de Manco, surely will not refuse to acquiesce in what I so much desire. Imitate the noble revenge of Osceola yonder, who gave a life for a blow and seems already to have forgotten the offense and his vengeance. You are both my guests—there are ladies present, consider what is due them. There! he added taking the delicate hand of the Spaniard and placing it in Jack's broad palm, shake hands and let this affair be forgotten."

"For my sake Jack!" I tremulously whispered, drawing near as I saw him hesitate.

He gave me one quick, pained glance as he caught my words, then his strong fingers closed for an instant over the slender ones in his grasp, and as instantly loosed their hold.

"That's right," said uncle Charles cheerily, eager to believe peace fully restored. "Now Don Cospar, come to the house and get yourself into dry clothes, or you'll have no life left in you for either duels or duets."

As the two walked off in the direction of the mansion, Jack sat on the grass at Miss Van Doane's side sipping his coffee and chatting with her, and I thought I had never seen her look so pretty as she did while brightening at his words, and responding to his gay sallies. The rest of the Larue's discussed the incidents of the days sport, much to my edification, till my uncle reappeared, when they made their adieus, and just as the sun sunk below the level plains, they rode away.

Chapter II.

"Do you suppose the quarrel will end where it was dropped to-day," asked Miss Van Doane, as she lingered awhile in my room that night, before seeking her own.

"Certainly, are they not pledged?"

"In my judgment, no. Such an icy hand-shake as that, was a doubtful voucher of peace and good will."

"They would not so abuse Uncle Charles' confidence—he regarded it as a reconciliation," I said, continuing the brushing of my hair, which operation I had suspended for the moment, as Gertrude's doubt stayed my hand.

"They might possibly overlook or forget that under the smart of their own wrongs. Each gave and received an insult."

"Tut! Miss Van Doane, men are humbugs, a slap in the face, a ducking, and they can no longer dwell on the same planet—a life, pray consider the magnitude of the forfeit—a human beings life is demanded to wipe out the trespass, yet, you'll often see them in uncomplaining silence bearing to their lives end, wrongs that gnaw like cancers at their hearts, and they lay not a straw in the path of their oppressor, nor raise a finger to stop it."

"But, good heavens, Marguerite, would you have a man bear what either of those gentlemen did, and demand no redress?"

"The redress, like the insult was given on the spot. Don Caspar struck Osceola, Jack took his dogs part, then the Don struck Jack himself, and, in return was tossed into the bayou. The dog, the original cause of the of the fracas brought the Spaniard safely to the land; that should in my opinion have ended the whole affair to the satisfaction of every body. It was a simple game you see, of tit for tat."

"Your idea of honor, Miss Marguerite, is shocking."

"I suppose so, for my ideal of honor is that which stands too high for a slap in the face, or any such childish exhibition of temper to reach it."

"I fear that neither Mr. Larue, nor Don Caspar possess any of the kind of honor, you approve of."

"Why so, pray?"

"Because, as Mr. Larue sat with me under the trees to-day, after the quarrel, and the Don's departure for the house, Louis, the servant, your uncle has appointed to wait on Senor de Manco, and who, you remember had been in attendance at the table, came quietly to us from the house and cautiously slipped a bit of paper into Mr. Larue's hand."

"Well?"

"'Well,' Mr. Larue politely said, by your leave, opened and read it, then scribbled a few words on a card and gave it to Louis, who immediately returned with it."

"And then?"

"Then Mr. Larue drew out a cigar, bowed to me, and again said, 'by your leave, twisted up the note he had received, applied a match to it, watched it burn until almost consumed, then lighted his cigar, and crushed the remainder under his heel'"

"Well," I said, after a moments pause, "I do not believe it meant anything."

"It meant blood!" said Miss Van Doane, with a startling emphasis.

"Nonsense! uncle Charles probably persuaded the Don to write a word of apology, and Jack no doubt sent back his acceptance of it."

"I would not give much for your knowledge of the code, *ma chere*,"

responded Miss Van Doane, with a peculiar smile, "good night."

"Good night," I replied quietly, but as she went out and closed the door, I tucked up my hair and went straightway to see my uncle.

I found him smoking on the gallery.

"Uncle Charles," I cried earnestly, as I laid my hand upon his shoulder, "you think the storm all over don't you?"

"Bless me! is the little one dazed? he exclaimed, taking the cigar from his lips and surveying me from head to foot. "What do you mean by storms? Did you ever see a fairer moonlight?"

"Oh, uncle Charles, pray don't teaze, surely you know what I mean—the fuss, the quarrel you know, between Jack and Don Caspar."

"Of course, child, of course, that is all blown over. Their hot blood has simmered down by this time, an there's an end of it. I'm glad of it too, very glad of it. No doubt the Don's a good shot, but I've seen Jack set up a half dollar, and knock the liberty cap out of it with a pistol, ball nine times out of ten, at fifteen paces."

"Dear me!" I said with a shudder, "if it had not have been for you, I suppose we'd have had a corpse in the house by this time uncle?"

"Do I intrude?" said a soft voice at my elbow.

Don Caspar stood beside me.

"Hearing voices on the gallery, I concluded you had not retired, and thought I would show your uncle Charles a pair of Spanish toys."

He opened a sandal wood case and displayed a pair of pistols. They were of ivory, beautifully carved, and handsomely ornamented with chased silver mountings. In different velvet compartments were arranged caps, bullets, an elegant cut glass powder flask, a bullet mould, wad-cutter, screw-driver, ect, each tool of the finest burnished steel with handles of the whitest ivory.

Lying there on their crimson velvet cushions, how little they looked like two deadly instruments which with one note from their mouths could clip a road through a human heart and open the very gates of Eternity!

"These are my pets," said Don Caspar fondling them.

"They are beauties!" exclaimed uncle Charles.

Then he lifted one in his hand, inspected it, drew back the trigger, let it gently down again, examined the muzzle, the butt, the sight with the critical and admiring eye of a connoisseur.

"Splendid!" he ejaculated. "Dear me! if I had had such a whistler as that when I stood up with Morgan on the Mouse Meadows!"

"Then you are a duelist yourself sir?" quickly questioned de Manco.

"Sir?" said uncle Charles, with the air of a man suddenly awak-

ened, who suspects he has betrayed a secret in his sleep.

Don Caspar laughed, and affixed a cap to the pistol held in his hand.

"These do not look as if you practiced much with them," said uncle Charles, laying the one he had taken tenderly down.

"I manage to keep them in tune was the reply—would it startle you *Senorita*, if I just clip the tassel from that cottonwood twig yonder?"

"The report would not, your skill might," I answered.

He gave me a keen, curious glance. A cottonwood tree stood in the moonlight, about fifteen paces from us on the lawn with a projecting branch on the extreme end of which hung one tassel, the last of a cluster. "That would be a good shot I think for daylight," said my uncle, measuring the distance with his eye and glancing at the proposed mark. "It would be a remarkable one at night even with this bright moon."

Don Caspar stood up, raised his weapon and seeming scarcely to take aim, fired. The tassel dropped to the ground as if severed by a knife.

"Bravo!" cried uncle Charles.

"A hit, a most palpable hit, I quoted."

If that tree had been a man, eh, and the tassel his jugular, what a spitting fountain that bit of lead would have made of him! said Don Caspar, "ha, ha! ha, ha!"

The strange laugh rang out with something fiendish in it, on the still night air, and the face of the speaker wore at the moment, the look of the malicious demon. "Horrible!" I ejaculated.

"Your pardon, *Senorita*," he said, bowing and quite himself again. "Accept my sincere regrets, that for an instant I forgot your presence."

I bowed coldly enough, for his words had shocked me; and bidding uncle Charles good night, retraced my steps to my room. Passing Miss Van Doane's door, I saw a light still burning, and I knocked—

She bade me come in.

I half opened the door, looked in and found her dressed and still sitting by her toilette table.

"I have talked with uncle Charles, Miss Van Doane; he assures me there is nothing to fear, besides it just occurred to me to ask you if it would be according to the 'code' for Don Caspar to make Louisa, his body servant, his 'friend' and bearer of a message to his adversary on such an occasion?"

"'Circumstances alter cases,' Marguerite. Remember Don Caspar has no friend, no acquaintance in the parish, your uncle or Mr. Larue's brothers or father, you surely would not expect him to call upon—but tell me, did I not hear a pistol shot?"

I related the incident which had just occurred.

"He hit it! is his aim so true," she exclaimed, springing to her feet and clasping her hands wildly together—then dropping into her chair again, she fell to weeping almost hysterically.

[To be Continued]

ART. VI.—EXODUS.

We have explained thus far the manner in which the South may alone regain its social and political independence in the Union. It is by providing for itself the same materials of political power that have been employed to disfranchise it. It is in vain to repeat the well proven facts in regard to the original compact between the States. That such was the character of the Union, admits no doubt, in an impartial mind. But with the accession of three-fourths of the present voters immigrants, and the descendants of immigrants, since the formation of the Union, what evidence have we that these new and preponderant parties to the compact are willing to take the traditional construction of its meaning? The acquisition then of the material elements of population and capital is indispensable to ensure a fair representation of the rights of ourselves and of our States, as members of the Union. Indeed, our statesmen have unconsciously relied greatly on material means to secure a just construction of our rights. Cotton was always regarded as the material bulwark of Southern rights. The values imported in gold, and the clothing furnished the world were always relied on to prevent a forcible execution of the Northern ideas in the administration of the Federal Government. Volumes of our own REVIEW might be quoted to show that the North could not with impunity overthrow a labor whose product was so intimately connected with its own prosperity. The South always acknowledged and relied on a material element of production. It was potent, but it was insufficient. We have in this and in other respects acknowledged the principle, let us pursue it, let us add to our numbers by furnishing more varied and more attractive employment for our people. Let us invite immigrants to aid and instruct our unemployed thousands how to spin and weave this cotton. Let us open our own mines, build and navigate our own ships, and as preliminary to all this, let us educate our own youth to apply all that science has taught, to all that art can effect. This is the means and basis of political independence. It is social power and prosperity.

But without abandoning our purpose to impress these doctrines in future, we propose to interpolate at the present time an exposition

of the manner in which they should be made useful. We will make a resume, of the constitutional progress of the government, and deduce by the application of the doctrines which we have impressed heretofore, the means by which the Southern people may avoid being always the victims of an hostile opinion. It is, indeed, the only manner by which the South can in our opinion regain the power of construction, or, acquire the power to restore the statehood of the members which compose the Union. We shall avail ourselves of this review to express our opinions upon the

POLITICAL POSITION AND POLICY OF THE SOUTH.

The presidential election has resulted in the choice of an officer, who, was not the preference of the people of the South, or—of ourselves. The opposition to General Grant arose from the fact that he accepted the congressional version of the Federal Constitution. That the representative department of the government shall enact the laws and dictate the policy of the government. The theory of General Grant's election is: that the executive shall have no policy, but that he shall administer and execute the policy prescribed by the representative department. This is the result—perhaps it is the end—of a long war. When presidents have, in the past asserted an opinion differing from that of Congress, an appeal has been taken to the people. In some cases it has resulted in favor of the executive, as when General Jackson suppressed the bank of the United States in opposition to both Congress and the Supreme Court; in other cases, as in that of Mr. Johnson, the decision of Congress has been affirmed by the popular election. It will not be forgotten, that the Whig party was formed on the issue, that the executive department was limited by a line which allotted duties to the judiciary and to Congress respectively. The theory that the executive was a substantive and almost an independent power—that the executive was a representative of the people, was a doctrine new to the constitutional lawyers. The federalists regarded the executive as an officer appointed to enforce the laws. The Supreme court as a tribunal to expound the laws. The Republicans of the old school were jealous of executive power. They complained of the etiquette and exclusion of the Court of Washington. They de-

nounced the powers assumed or accorded to, the elder Adams, as monarchical. This hostility to executive discretion had repeatedly manifested itself during the revolution. In fact, that war was fought without an executive. The whole administrative policy, foreign and domestic, civil and military, was in the hands of the Confederate Continental Congress. We have elsewhere remarked on the disappointment and defeat of all old parties as a result of the late war. The Federalists—who dreaded and detested the democratic principle—claimed that the Supreme Court was the proper arbiter of all interstate differences, and of all differences between the State and Federal government. Has that party triumphed? By no means. Congress has circumscribed the supreme judiciary. It has prohibited the courts from traversing the political action of the government. It has practically brought the court under the rule of the popular majority, by increasing the number of districts and making the appointment of all Federal judges depend upon their conformity with the opinion of the representative department. Where then is the independence—where is the impartiality of that august tribunal? How could Adams or Hamilton rely upon an umpire appointed by the principal party in difference? The judiciary is made subordinate to a co-ordinate department. It is an elective body, elected by the suffrage of the very departments, it was, in the theory of the Federal party, appointed to try. Still less would the State right Republicans recognize any feature of their philosophy in the government as at present administered. The government of the Confederate States which Henry foresaw would be merged in a numerocracy—that government of States which Stephens shows to have been intended by most of the States which accepted it—that government has practically perished. The majority of States have repudiated the right of a State to withdraw from a compact which it was convinced had been violated. The seceding States have in terms renounced the right which they have asserted as a condition of readmission into the Union. Practically, there is no such statehood in the Union, for there is no umpire to decide, and no power to assert, the rights of a State, when in the opinion of the State those rights have been invaded. Suppose for illustration: Congress shall grant a right of railway from Washington direct to New Orleans, or New York, incorporate a company, and endow it with powers? Where would

be the practical ability of the States intervening between these terminal points, to restrict these granted franchises? Would the State declare by resolutions that this grant was illegal? Would it make a case before the Supreme Court and ask a decree of injunction and restraint against the corporate intruders, or the Federal Marshal? The futility of the first remedy has been made unhappily manifest in the ruin of the South, while if the judges appointed because of conformity, should have the temerity to decide against their masters, Congress would merely declare that it was the proper policy of the government to construct such works, or to confer such corporate powers, and the judicial decree would be as impotent to arrest the exercise of the disputed power, as a Papal bull to protect the Vatican from the advance of a foreign force. The democratic principle, as organized under, and upon, the administration of Jackson asserted a third umpirage; it was that of the executive. It is difficult to see how this theory comported with the principle of a government of the States, or of the people. Perhaps it may have been comprehended in the idea that the President was himself a representative of the people, and thus, as their champion, was expected to protect them against misrepresentation by their own legislative representatives. It was thought proper to strengthen the executive arm with patronage; upon some occasions with the appropriation of public money. The executive was expected to announce an administrative policy which the representatives, members of the same political party were required to sustain. It was to some extent a military organization. In its unity. In its subordination. In some of its maxims of political warfare. It is a very powerful theory when the representative and executive department are in a majority and in entire accord. Here then, have been three different umpires of constitutional differences, each of which has been relied on by each of three great parties. The Supreme Court has been subordinated to the representative department. The States have been subjugated and have renounced in terms, their right to construe the common Constitution, or to resist the enforcement of a construction by the representative department. It is claimed that the late presidential election has established the right of the representative department to enact, and construe the laws, to dictate the policy of

the government. It is claimed that the President elect has capitulated to this construction. The representative department stands in undisputed supremacy over each and all of the umpires and all of the three umpires and protectors proposed by the old political parties. We do not say that no one disputes this supremacy, but no party now appears to have the physical or political power to gain-say it. However obvious it may be that President Grant, may, like President Johnson, differ with the representative department. However possible it may be that he may make points doing his administration, which may divide his supporters and bring his opponents to his side. The fact remains, that at the period of inaugurating the President elect, the representative department will be supreme.

Assuming, therefore, that the legislative policy of the government will control the country, as the tariff, the fiscal system, and the reconstruction acts have undoubtedly done, what does it behoove the Southern States to do? What policy should they pursue? They may reassert the doctrines which are enshrined in their convictions. They may reorganize the cohorts defeated in the late election, and march anew to the combat. The probabilities are that the combat fought between the same parties, under the same leaders, and on the same issues misunderstood, and perverted as they recently have been, would result as heretofore. The policy of the Southern people is to withdraw their most vital interests from the issue. It is, if possible to reinstate the theory upon which the Federal government was founded. Whether we pursue the one or the other of these objects, the obvious course of action is the same. *We shall require the assent of a majority of American voters.* To this umpire must every question come at last. All other means of asserting the rights of the minority having failed, the conclusion is inevitable. The Supreme Court—the States—the executive—have been all repudiated. King Numbers is enthroned as the American autocrat. Polyglot, multicolored, pantheist, he may be, still he is omnipotent and irresistible. We have fought him for eighty years—with words, with devices, with the sword. This ruler has conquered and is omnipotent. Yet, in the caprice of his domination he may do justice. The majority is composed of individuals, the integral atoms which make up this mighty magnate. While the larger number of these indi-

viduals may be upon one day, or on one question, with the ruling power, many of them may be upon another day, or upon another question borne down by the very power they have aided to create. The lesson of human mutability was not taught more distinctly by Haman and Mordecai, or by him who was elevated to a throne on one day to be dragged lifeless through the sewers the next, than it is made practically manifest by the acclamation which elected Mr. Johnson in one term and dismisses him in disgrace in another. We may remark that it was a knowledge of this mutability by which a man in the majority of to-day may be in the minority of to-morrow which made the framers of the Federal Constitution seek with such care for an arbiter. While they believed with John Wesley, that *vox populus est vox Dei*, they could not forget that it cried, "Crucify him! Crucify him!" It was, therefore, that they proposed to interpose umpires between the greater and smaller number of voters. They have unhappily failed in their patriotic efforts. The experience of one generation does not answer for another. Experience like salvation, is an individual enterprise. There can be no doubt that the present generation, finding the tendency of the individual to slip down, and to be crushed under the superincumbent pressure of the majority, will endeavor to introduce some prop or stay for the protection even of individual error. Like the rediscovery of lost arts, he who shall devise a mediation, an atonement for the sins of the minority, who rebel against the opinion of the majority will be hailed as the Messiah of degenerate Republicanism.

In the meantime, however, the South must avail itself of this ebullition of the majority by which the political particles at the bottom are continually changing place with those at the top. It is the heat generated by the numerical mass that occasions this ebullition. If the Southern people can by the substitution of other ideas for those under which they suffer, ascend into, mix with, and constitute an equipollent portion of the majority; then they may relieve themselves from subordination, and even acquire a power to reconsider, if not to reinstate the rights they have been compelled to surrender. Of course, this can only be done if they can convince their coefficient numbers that these rights were essential to all. This can alone be effected now by experience and example.

Suppose we offer some practical illustration of our meaning. We

take three sections of the Union. Their Federal representation stands thus in Congress and the electoral congress; under the census of 1860.*

EAST, 99.

WEST, 90.

SOUTH, 55.

It is very obvious that a combination of any two of these powers must control the third. One section standing solid against another and dividing a third may control a result. Suppose we take the issue of an additional tax on iron; the South solid with the West would control such a measure. Suppose we take a reduction of the duty on sugar, the West standing solid against the protective party, would divide the South, that is: the West, and seven-eighths of the Southern vote, would exceed the North, and the sugar interest. On the homestead and land grant policy, the West and the Southern land States would control those States which hold no public lands. These examples involve questions of principle and policy, and they illustrate the varying nature of the power which resides in the majority. They offer the proud and encouraging assurance to the weaker States and sections that they may in time rise to the ascendant. That they may, according to the dignity of their interests, and the ability of their representatives, come to control the councils of the nation, and find protection in the assimilation of their own interests with those more powerful than themselves. "Power," says a very general reasoner, "is always stealing from the many to the few." This is not the case in electoral institutions. Power is always consolidating the interests of the many, but the individuals who compose the many, are not a body corporate, holding perpetual authority or unbroken succession. The sea sometimes casts up the very mire to the surface. The crested wave that washes the crag, at one hour must constitute the calm atmosphere that protects the algæ at another.

These are not affirmed as discoveries, in the moral philosophy of politics. The fathers who framed the American Constitution knew the alternations of popular sentiment. They know that the popu-

* This does not include the increased representation of the freedmen. It also classes Kentucky, Missouri and Tennessee with the West, and Maryland with the East, etc.

lar majority crushes like the avalanche where it falls. They endeavored to interpose those umpires of construction of which we have spoken. These protective props have been shattered by the superincumbent weight of numbers. For at last, the power of numbers is like hydrostatic pressure. It has sprung the frame work, it has permeated the pores, it has sapped the structure of the government. Was the executive in the way of its will, as when Adams I, or Tyler attempted to carry unacceptable measures? or when the representatives cast the electoral vote in favor of a minority candidate—Adams II? It triumphantly reversed these measures at the next presidential election. Did the Supreme court decree the right of the South to carry slavery into Kansas? The executive and legislative representatives enlarged the number of the judges coinciding in opinion with themselves, and reversed the dictum upon which the rights of the South had relied. So when States resented and resisted the encroachment on their undisputed prerogatives, numbers organized war, suspended the common compact, levied forces, voted debt and bloodshed, and crushed out all resistance.

The aggregated numbers which people the United States; in pursuing the often trod and inevitable cycle of human history, may come to reinstate those arbiters which have been once constituted by their predecessors. They may trace on the inscription of our political Pompeii, buried beneath the irruption of revolutionary lava, evidences that those restraints, which have been demonstrated to be modern necessities, were once imposed on the accelerating velocity of Republican progress. Perhaps, this may be in the future. Now, we must study how this numerical power may be deprived of its destructive force, by distributing its impetus and its oppression among the constituent portions of the whole Federal machinery.

ART. VII.—DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE.

I.—MEMPHIS, TENNESSEE.

This fine commercial city is evidently in a better condition with regard to its various industrial interests and trade, than it has been at any period since the summer of '65. Several influential causes have combined to effect this result. The most important, however, is found in the vast improvement in the facilities by which merchandise and produce are transferred through and into the city. The streets have been well paved and are in better condition than those of any city in this valley, except New Orleans. Transit over those roads has been made easy by this means and therefore greatly cheapened. The Transfer Company alone does at least three times as much work with the same material which they employed two years ago, and this too at less than half the expense, as the wear and tear of animals and machinery have been reduced a half and perhaps two-thirds. These finely paved streets alone invite traffic to a city that not long ago, was so repulsively muddy that it was a terror to visitors and an incubus to those who did business in its storehouses.

The improvement just cited, has inspired a thorough disposition on the part of the citizens toward enlarging the area of trade and forcing it by all sorts of inviting inducements, to center there from all quarters that are naturally tributary to that city. Railway enterprises are stretching out their long arms of steel and hooks of iron to bind fast far off sections with the commercial and industrial interests of the place. Steamboat lines are reaching to various points and using every effort to secure to Memphis the trade of the places they reach. Her merchants are also, as a class, energetic and untiring, though they do not seem, as yet, to work in as concentrated and beneficial manner, as they might do.

With a strong combination, as an union, an active working chamber of commerce, they could easily remedy abuses and adverse influences that have long been clogs on their industry and prosperity. The peculiarity of business men in Memphis is their individuality and a disposition to avoid co-operation. This is always a feature of country trading towns and villages; that Memphis will soon be necessitated to remedy and by following the example of St. Louis will soon reap like benefits. The country in the vicinity is destined to become thickly peopled with a good class of producers. Lands are held at a range of prices which invite immigrants from all quarters of the earth, and the shrewdest operators in this department of internal resources are successfully calling attention to the inducements that are offered to agriculturists. Along the line of the Memphis and Chatanooga Railroad, there are vast bodies of land that are fertile to a wonderful degree. Major Hicks the president of the road is working laboriously to effect the improvement of these. By example and every inducement that can be possibly offered, he incites local development. His energy and enterprise has imparted wonderful vitality to this fine road and inspired a confidence in its success, that causes holders of its stock to retain it at good prices.

Along the Mississippi Central Railroad there are also large bodies of fine lands and every effort that promises success, is being used by its indomitable president to offer inducements to the population along the line. The energy and spirit he has infused by his activity and enterprise into this railway interest, is exhibited in the improvements that are springing up and the increasing confidence that is exhibited in the values of shares etc. The Mississippi and Tennessee road is one hundred miles in length, runs southward, terminus at Grenada in Mississippi. Along this line of splendid railway, there are more thickly populated settlements than on any other route tributary to Memphis. Large bodies of cheap lands offer the finest inducements to settlers to go there and make fortunes in gardening, fruits, etc. Under the management of the president and the close guardianship of its superintendent—this line of railway is kept in first class order and safely permits a running time of twenty-five to thirty miles an hour.

The Memphis and Louisville Railroad has a fine class of people living along its line. It passes through a section of West Tennessee that has long been noted for its fertility and fine agricultural excellence. The most inviting inducements are offered to agriculturists from all lands to settle along the route. The liberal

management of the road is very notable and it is one of the most valuable tributaries of the city. Under the attentive management of its superintendent, it has taken place among the first class roads of the country and proved not only a success, and profitable to the stockholders, but also a very valuable arm of assistance to the commercial prosperity of Memphis.

One of the latest enterprises that have been started in the Bluff city we note the cotton seed oil mills of Jesse Page, jr., and others under the name of the Memphis Oil Company. This establishment is well provided and calculated to use thirty tons of cotton seed daily. That it will be profitable is sufficiently guaranteed by the noted enterprise of the proprietors, who are among the most energetic and public spirited citizens of the place.

Among the most energetic merchants we recognize the firm of Menkin Bros. These gentlemen are the most liberal advertisers in this city, and their returns from this well applied system are not only exceedingly gratifying, but more profitable than a casual observer can possibly estimate. We cite them as an example of successful merchandising in Memphis and explain their method as a representative of the manner of doing business in that city. The stock of this firm consists of everything that is requisite for a wholesale and retail trade. They have a buyer always in New York who purchases in lots daily to fill the constant orders of the Memphis house. They ship by fastest freight lines and thus quickly supply all demands. They sell at the lowest cash prices and turn the nimble sixpence often during the year. Their dry goods are of the most complete assortments and at all prices. In boots and shoes, they do an immense business and by their system of rapid sales keep constantly fresh supplies, and can surpass their competitors, who do a credit and sometimes a losing business. The general variety business brings to this store crowds of people, whilst other stores are comparatively deserted.

There are many commission and grocery houses which do a fine business. Some of these are old and well established and are favorites others are free advertisers and they are the most successful and most prominent because the names are constantly before the public. We are pushing the enterprise of Memphis and increasing its area of trade. That they will succeed in establishing a profitable trade does not admit of doubt.

The banking system of Memphis is in a more primitive condition, than it was ever known heretofore in the history of the city. The comparatively small amount of capital employed finds investment at large rates of interest and much of the money loaned is by shiving brokers and to special favorites. Outside capital is much sought for and invited, but it too, usually soon finds speculations that offer greater inducements for profitable investment other than the slow returns from bank loans, and thus it occurs that the merchants are often pinched and have to struggle against hard times.

As a cotton market, Memphis rates well, and at an excellent standard of prices. The trade absorbs the staple from convenient points in Arkansas and the adjacent country contiguous to the city. The money that will be distributed in the vicinity for the purchase of the crop of 1868, will be retained and henceforth furnish an amount of circulation that will doubtless prevent any such close financial trouble, as that which has cramped and crippled the business men of the section, in the transactions and dull times that have weighted them heavily during the past two years. This portion of the trade that is secured from Arkansas is perhaps more exclusively due to the enterprise of Memphis than any other item of its receipts. The Little Rock Railroad which is now being rapidly pushed to completion, is an immense feeder to the Bluff city and is daily increasing the amount of value in trade and commerce. A splendid immigration is locating along the line and the developement of the fertile lands for which the State is noted will be especially the grand resource for Memphis commerce.

A new enterprise, but which is also fraught with vast good results to the city is the river railway now in process of location along the west bank of the Mississippi and destined to connect Memphis and St. Louis. The bank of this will form a levee and reclaim the richest lands in the world from swamp and overflow.

The St. Louis and Memphis packet line is a convenience and important necessity to Memphis and its river travels and traffic that can never be dispensed with. It is beneficial to all parties concerned and has established a reputation for relia-

bility dispatch and safety, that makes it very popular.

Colonel John Adams' line of Arkansas river steamers, is also a most important adjunct to the trade of the city. The energy and enterprise that has made this fine line of boats popular and profitable, is worthy of emulation, and its beneficial results very advantageous.

Memphis is destined to a fine future of prosperity and flourishing business. Its people have reduced their business to an economical system that ensures profits, and with the increasing prosperity of the country, the enlargement of capital and the extension of railways and improvements of every character, we look confidently to a steady and healthy improvement in every feature of that favored place. The number of the business houses, that are requisite to do its trade will always henceforth be regulated by the condition of demand and supply. Hitherto, there were to many shops and stores, but competition caused a vast number to be closed, and these will only be opened hereafter, when necessity demands them for its uses. With business reduced thus to a good basis, and properly operated, Memphis will continue to increase in wealth, enterprise and importance in the bright future

2.—OUR DREDGE BOAT.

We have been favored by permission of General M. D. McAlister with extracts from the Log Book of the United States Dredge Boat, modestly named the "Essayons," or Experiment. We are too much interested in the success of this enterprise to censure or to condemn the details of operations. We look steadily at the fact that the government has undertaken to do the work at its own expense, and under its own direction. The West will not tolerate the intervention of a contractor. The government must not delegate this vital work to any subordinate or to any private interests. We trust, in this connection that Congress will not grant to any company the right now sought to deepen Pass L'Outre, or to canalise the outlet. The government must do all these things under its general obligation to deepen and keep deep the outlets of the Mississippi. But to return to our Dredge Boat. The Log which we have seen reports a great deal of delay in the operations of the boat. The screw has been broken. The machinery out of order. The weather has been foggy—it has been stormy—the boiler and chimneys have been foul, the cable have been fouled in the screw, rods and cranks have given way and some evidences of inadequate machinery been obvious. For some of these accidents the vessel has been docked, others have prevented her from working long at a time, there have, however, been two singular instances of interruption. The Third Assistant Engineer had his foot wrenched in the machinery, and one of the hands had a finger taken off, for each of these mishaps the vessel had to be taken to Fort Jackson for surgical assistance! Certainly a surgeon should be assigned to this service. The idea of carrying a steamboat to a doctor will not suit our practical river men at all. There should be relief boats. The work, if successful, should never be suspended night or day, winter or summer. The government should send a fleet of Dredge Boats, if they will attain the great object of relieving the Western producer from the present cost of sending his crop to market and getting his goods back. But will the Dredge succeed. We are inclined to think it will, and subjoin the following summary of the work done as our reason for the opinion. We will preface the extract with a single word of comment. From our acquaintance with the officers in charge and from the character of the service assigned them, we consider the report perfectly sincere. It is not apologetic, nor has it been as reports of service performed by parties interested so often are, doctored—that is, the failures have not been suppressed, nor the success exaggerated. We consider it then a candid report and are encouraged to believe that the enterprise will succeed and that if it does not, that the officers in charge will tell the public of these failures. After a statement showing the soundings on the Pass L'Outre on the 30th of October, 1868, as of the low water mark, the report proceeds.—[ED. REV.

When the "Essayons" commenced to work on the bar, the depth of water was

entirely different from that shown on the chart. By comparing the soundings taken on the 30th of October, with those taken in September, it appears that about 9,556 cubic yards of earth were excavated last month during the 97 hours that the "Essayons" worked on the bar.

It should be borne in mind, however, that since the 14th of October the vessel worked without the forward screw. It will be seen by these soundings that hard bottom was found only in two places, the hard clay having been almost entirely removed during the month. It should also be stated, that since the middle of the month the current has been very sluggish indeed; the water at times being green as high up as the pilot station. The result of course must have been that much of the mud agitated by the boat settled in the channel instead of being carried outside. The water as shown by these soundings is one foot less than that actually found on the bar at the time the soundings were made.

3—OUR COMMERCIAL RELATIONS WITH THE SOUTHERN STATES OF THIS CONTINENT.

We acknowledge from Hon. Senator Kellogg, the annual report of the State Department on foreign commerce. Mr. Kellogg has been appointed on the Senate Committee of Commerce, and will thus have it in his power to effect much good for the city of New Orleans. Our treaties with the southern nations of this continent are in a very bad condition. They are far from placing us practically "on the footing of the most favored nations" with other American States. England, France, Germany enjoy far better trade with those States than we do. It is to be feared that jealousy of our progress may have something to do with this, and commercial cupidity much more.

The American trade with Cuba and Mexico are pursued with especial embarrassments, one among which is the want of confidence in the mercantile integrity of their seaport cities. The American Consul, Black, explains why American commerce cannot succeed in Mexico. He attributes its practical exclusion to the sale by the Mexican government of revenue receipts. These certain, merchants are alleged to buy at half price, which of course enables them to import and sell foreign goods on lower terms than the merchant who pays full duties. Of the Cuban merchants, some pleasant stories are told. One of our most eminent merchants reports a shipment of canvas hams to Havana. The consignment reported that the cholera was prevailing, the hams were pronounced unsafe, and were dumped in the harbor by order of the public authorities. He drew for the freight and charges. A Chicago merchant now in the city says that he purchased in Havana, by sample, a quantity of segars, represented as best brand, he opened the cases and found the segars of a very inferior quality, and barely realized in the sale the amount of duties paid. Another American was still more unlucky. He shipped to Havana a lot of kerosine oil and received in return "two sheets of foolscap covered with figures." Now we would recommend to our Senators in Congress from the Valley and Lake States the importance of having a Western Secretary of State. The export and import interest of the West are of extreme importance, and should be represented. The West needs moreover, at least, five hundred energetic young American consuls in the Spanish American ports. These men would do more than the ministers could towards opening the Southern trade with the West.

Then we especially need either free or reciprocal trade with these States. The government of the United States has practically guaranteed the integrity of foreign colonial possessions on this continent. If we should terminate treaty relations with those powers, American expeditions could any conquer country on the continent South of us. What equivalent does the United States receive for this guaranty? It is notorious that she has less trade than others with the protected countries. Our Senators should require that something like reciprocal trade with Cuba and other Colonial dependencies should be negotiated. The prosperity of the Western cities depends on regaining the south sea trade in exchange for Western provisions, and their Representatives in Congress cannot render more effectual service than by consummating such relations.

4—DECLINE OF AMERICAN SHIPPING.

The decline in the amount of tonnage built and belonging to the United States is a subject of deep interest to every section. A Southern print would naturally experience some delicacy in calling attention to this extraordinary reduction of nearly one-third in measurement since a period shortly before the war, were it not vouched for by the exposition of Northern authorities in the paper which we subjoin. Our readers will observe on perusing this statement that it contains two propositions:

First, That the decline of American sail tonnage has been due to three causes, 1, The Confederate privateers; 2, Depreciated currency; 3, The tariff and internal revenue system.

Second, That the shipping interest may be restored by two principal measures, 1, The right to build or purchase ships in any foreign market, paying an import ad valorem duty on their cost; 2, A remission or drawback on American built vessels equal to the duty on the foreign materials which enter into their construction. We do not mean to be at all sectional, but deem it of great importance to the American shipping interest that we should examine carefully the causes of decline. We do not dispute that the causes assigned in the paper, have had this effect, but it is proper to say that the greatest cause of the decline has not been adverted to, it is in our opinion: The decline of exportable products. It will be granted that the value of shipping depends wholly on freights. If the duty be taken off raw material entering into the manufacture of ships—nay, if ships completely fitted and found, should drift ashore at any American port. If they were there a free gift. It would ruin the unfortunate owner, unless he had sufficient employment for them. Let us look into this decline of American tonnage, and compare it with the decline of American freights. The coincidence will almost demonstrate that the one is a consequence of the other.

Exports of cotton for the years 1860 and 1867—

	pounds.
1860.....	1,767,681,338
1867.....	666,576,314

Here is a decline of seventy per cent. in the out freight of this great staple. We have not at hand the exports of the tobacco, rice or sugar, for the corresponding years. There is certainly a great reduction in the exports of tobacco, because, although the number of pounds produced has not declined more than some thirty per cent., yet, the quantity exported has diminished with our increased domestic consumption. The sugar crop has, however, fallen from 469,000 hhds., in 1860, to not exceeding 80,000 hhds., in 1868. The whole rice product was in 1860, 187,167,062 lbs., in 1867, it was but 10,104. The production of Indian corn and wheat are nearly the same in 1867, as in 1860. We must not be misled by the fact that our exported values have not fallen off in the same ratio with the weights exported. We learn from the report of the Bureau of Statistics for 1867. That this reduction of exported value was only about thirty-nine million of dollars, or ten per cent. It is added by the same authority, that the domestic exports of England have increased nearly thirty per cent., and those of France about forty-three per cent. England claims three times, and France double the amount of exports that we have.

There is a parallel between the growth and decline of cotton and shipping which seems to point to the one as one element upon which the other subsists. Thus—

	Cotton.	Shipping tons.
1789, lb.	1,590,000	123,893
1797, lb.	11,000,000	697,777
1807, lb.	80,000,000	848,307
1817, lb.	130,000,000	800,928
1827, lb.	270,000,000	747,170
1837, bales.....	1,801,497	810,447
1847, ".....	2,347,631	1,241,313
1859, ".....	4,675,770	(1757) 2,463,067
1867, ".....	2,361,000	1,354,293

We do not carry these points into detail, but enough has been shown to prove that the decline of American shipping has kept pace with the reduction of American freights. England on the other hand, has changed positions with the United States, in regard to her shipping, and it will be found that her imports of cotton from Asia and Africa, have exactly reversed the proportion of the staple received from the United States, and from all other countries. Thus, the United States, in 1860, furnished five-eighths of British consumption; we now furnish three-eighths. In addition to the importation of these freights, England exports their representative values. Among other large items of freight may be estimated the iron for four thousand miles of railroad in the British East Indies, besides large shipments of the same material to the United States. Enough has been said to show that American shipping has declined with American freights.

Upon reference to the report we find that "the absolute decline" in the foreign tonnage of the country from 1861 to 1867 has been fifty-four per cent., or nearly a million and a half of tons. But the report adds with an expression of surprise that this tonnage "has decreased thirty-three per cent. in the last three years, and these years, be it remembered, were years of peace, and of at least average commercial activity." Our explanation of this sudden and continued reduction is as follows: During the war a great deal of American tonnage was employed by the government in conveying military supplies to various points of warfare on the coast. At the close of the contest this demand for shipping ceased. There was an accumulation of Southern products which went speedily forward, under the impulse of high market prices, and this exportation left a surplus of American shipping over the demand. The report refers to former wars, and says "neither the wars nor the revulsions of the past have ever affected our ocean commerce to anything like this extent." This is very reasonable. A former war has excluded our ships from foreign commerce, but the war at an end, the foreign commerce offered the same field as before. The late civil war, however, laid waste and suspended the country most productive of foreign freights, and therefore, a mere declaration of peace could neither restore the weight of exports nor the immediate capacity of that region to produce exportable cargoes. It is, moreover, to be observed that a very large proportion of the commerce formerly conducted coastwise, is now conducted by artificial routes across from the interior to the Atlantic seaports. This of course effects the coastwise trade.

We were inclined to treat this matter sectionally, we might show that the values produced in the Southern States have remained nearly stationary, while the weights exported have, as to cotton, at least, been reduced nearly one-half. But if we are right in attributing the decline of American shipping to the reduction of American freights, it is reasonable to assert that the best mode of restoring the tonnage, is by reinstating as far as possible the weight of American exports. This may be greatly promoted by three measures. 1, The social pacification of the Southern States, whereby the exportable products of these States shall be increased. 2, The removal of all obstacles to the cheap exportation of grain from the western interior. 3, Establishing an American commercial policy by which all the ports of this continent shall be opened in free or reciprocal trade to the United States. We will not expatiate upon these propositions at this time. It is obviously to the interest of the shipping interest, that they shall investigate the value and the feasibility of carrying them into effect. We will now make way for the report:—[ED. REV.]

REPORT SUBMITTED TO THE NATIONAL BOARD OF TRADE, DEC., 1868, ON AMERICAN SHIPPING.

The very able paper of Mr. Hamilton A. Hill, filled as it is with facts and figures that show the decay of the shipping interests of the United States, and consequently the falling off of the demand for American built ships, the closing of the shipyards and the scattering of the workmen, to whose skill and ability in this branch of labor we are indebted for our success in promptly filling up our navy to the necessities of the war. While it is unnecessary to repeat any of the facts already stated, yet one very important fact has only been alluded to—it is that foreign capitalists are supplying us with carrying facilities for an extensive commerce.

During the month of November, just passed, 38 foreign-built steamers left the city of New York for Europe. The smallest steamer, City of Cork 1,539 tons; the largest, the Scotia, 3,865 tons an average of 2,460 tons. Thus, 93,480 tons left the city of New York bound for Europe in foreign built steamers. Suppose these steamers have brought as well 93,480 tons of merchandise to our

shores, it amounts to 186,960 tons of freight, which at an average freight of \$8 in gold per ton (the steam rate of freight), amount to \$1,495,680 in gold, showing what we had to pay in the month of November as freight on our merchandise to the foreign capitalists who supply us with our carrying facilities. Besides those from New York, for iron built steamers have left other cities bound for Europe, swelling this large sum still more. Besides steamers, sailing vessels under foreign flags are bringing our sugar and molasses from the West Indies; the largest importers of the United States say that a very large proportion of these imports is brought in foreign built vessels.

Do foreign capitalists derive any advantage by carrying our merchandise. A German merchant, owner of stock in the Hamburg Line of steamers, stated that the line had made twenty per cent. dividends, and been able to build out of their surplus a new steamer every year.

This line consists now of ten steamers, and one now on the stocks.

There are now eight lines of foreign built steamers running from New York, owned by foreign capitalists, and protected by the flags of England, France, the North German confederation, and by the flag of the free city of Hamburg.

By act of Parliament during the reign of the present Queen of England, all restriction has been removed, both as regard ownership of foreign built vessels and as regards the nationality of the seamen required to sail them.

No other interest are prevented from hiring operatives wherever they can be hired to the best advantage. The emigrant just landed upon our shores, and before he has fallen into the hands of the naturalization machines, may be employed by the cotton and iron manufacturers, but not by the ship owner, who must wait until the foreigner is regenerated and becomes an American citizen.

The English government was not slow to recognize the superiority of American clipper ships, and allowed their subject to become owners of American built ships, transferring them to its own fostering care, and protecting them by its own flag. The result has proved their wisdom. English clipper ships built on our models now sail side by side with the ships they purchased, and as fast as the American built ships is worn out, the newly built clipper, launched from their own yard takes its place.

The following statement was made to the Legislature of the State of Maine, which shows that the duty upon materials entering into shipbuilding amounts to about \$7 in gold per ton, or say \$10 in currency.

"By careful investigation of the duties upon materials entering into construction of a ship we find that they would amount in round numbers to \$7 per ton in gold; reducing the cost of building a ship at present time \$68 in currency to a gold basis, and in round numbers it would be \$41; deducting duties, \$7 per ton, it would be \$34 per ton, which is as cheap as a spruce and hack ship could be bought for in the Provinces."

We should, therefore, propose as a relief for American shipping the privilege of allowing American citizens to purchase, build or equip, in any part of the world, any boat or vessel, propelled either by sail or by steam, that may be required for commercial purposes.

Resolved, That the National Board of Trade respectfully and earnestly urges on the Congress of the United States the enactment of such measures of relief to the foreign and domestic commerce of the United States as shall enable us to compete with the commerce of nations on the ocean, and thereby permit the promoters of our merchant marine to regain for our country her proud position on the high seas, from which she has been driven by the late war of rebellion.

Resolved, That this National Board of Trade, representing all sections and all interests of the United States, do recommend to Congress the enactment of such laws as will allow American citizens the right to purchase, build or equip, in any part of the world any boats or vessel, propelled either by sail or by steam, that may be required for commercial purposes, and admit such boats or vessel to register or enrollment under the American flag, on payment of a fixed duty on their cost; and do further recommend a remission of duty on vessel built in the United States, equal to the amount of duty paid upon all materials entering into their construction.

Resolved, That in view of the great disadvantages under which American commerce has long labored, and of the severe competition to which it is exposed, it is expedient that our lines of ocean steamers should be aided temporarily at least by a preference in carrying the mails, and by a liberal compensation for the same.

Edward Huxton, New York; Charles G. Nazro, Massachusetts; J. B. Brown, Maine; James R. Branch, Virginia; Henry Winslow, Pennsylvania; E. O. Stanard, Missouri; W. M. Egan, Illinois. Committee. John H. Boynton, Secretary.

On one of the great occasions when the Jewish people were convened to give expression to their gratitude for the past, and to take counsel for the future, their thanksgiving was mingled with lamentation, and their anticipations were clouded with gloom, in view of the dire calamities by which one of the divisions of the nation had been visited and well-nigh destroyed. From the vast congregation like the voice of a single man arose a complaint loud and bitter piercing the very skies; There is one tribe cut off from Israel this day!

Assembled as we are, at this the first annual meeting of the National Board of Trade, the representatives of the industry and the enterprise of the United States, our felicitations upon the pleasant and promising circumstances under which we have come together, and the gratulations mutually exchanged among us, on the fair degree of good fortune enjoyed at the present time by the agriculturists, the artisans, the manufacturers and the merchants of the country, are seriously modified and checked by the remembrance that one important national interest, honorable in the past has, to day, no share in the otherwise almost universal prosperity; that while during recent years other have been growing with unprecedented vigor, it has languished and decayed; and that while now others are laying plans broad and reaching for still further development, it is positively struggling for existence, uncertain whether or not it is to have a future at all. We need hardly say

that in these allusion we refer to American ocean commerce, to the past history and present condition of which attention is now invited.

In 1789 our shipping comprised about two hundred thousand tons. On the 30th of June, 1861, it had reached five and a half millions of tons, and was nearly as large as that of all the maritime nations combined, excepting Great Britain. At the latter date, the United States had attained a position in the first rank among the maritime powers; our flag was seen in every port upon the globe; our merchants were competing successfully for the traffic, under canvas, of every ocean; and they participated with profit even in carrying trade between different parts of the British empire. This great interest had been to that time a source of strength to our government, a source of wealth to our people. But since 1861, the almost uninterrupted growth of three-quarters of a century has been reversed, and a steady decline has been going on, which it would seem is still in progress, and which must be expected to continue, unless arrested by prompt, earnest and adequate measures of relief.

THE TUNNAGE OF 1861 AND 1867 COMPARED.

The total tunnage of the United States on the 30th of June, 1867, is given by the register of the Treasury Department at 3,886,615 tons. The total reported on the 30th of June, 1861, was 5,539,818 tons, which was the highest point ever gained by us. The decline for the six years is indicated as 1,671,198 tons, or about thirty per cent. But in order to be precise in our statements of fact, and intelligent, therefore, in our judgment, it is necessary to separate the national tunnage into two divisions—that which is employed in the internal commerce of the country, upon the rivers and lakes and along our coast, and that which is engaged in foreign trade.

The figures for the former, or, as it is called, the enrolled and licensed tunnage, are—

In 1861	2,897,185
In 1867	2,514,380
Difference	382,805

We have here a falling off of thirteen per cent. But, although the tunnage of 1861, as a whole, exceeded that of any year before or since, the enrolled and licensed tunnage reached its highest point in 1864—

In 1864 it was	3,404,506
In 1867 it was	3,214,380
Difference	900,126

This shows a decline during the three years, in the internal water-borne transportation facilities of the country, of twenty-six per cent. But we do not here see the full decline. Since the 30th of June, 1864, a new method of measuring vessels has been in use in the United States, and many spaces are now included in the measurement, which before were not taken into the account. The proportion between the new system and the old, changes with every difference of model, and it is difficult to reach an exact estimate in reference to it; the authorities of the department think that from ten to fifteen per cent would cover it. If we subtract only ten per cent, from the tunnage of 1867, to bring it to the same terms with that of 1864, we have the following result—

Domestic tunnage in 1864	3,404,506
“ “ “ 1867	2,514,380
Less ten per cent	251,438
Difference	2,262,942
	2,141,564

We have declined, it would seem, in our domestic tunnage, thirty-three per cent. in the last three years; and these years, be it remembered, were years of peace, and of at least average commercial activity. If this is the condition of the coasting trade, which is jealously protected against all competition from without, what is likely to be the case in regard to the registered tunnage, that is, the tunnage engaged in foreign commerce, in rivalry with all the world? The official report gives us the following information—

1861, registered tunnage, sail	2,540,020
“ “ “ steam	102,608—2,642,628
1867 “ “ sail	1,178,715
“ “ “ steam	172,523—1,351,238
Difference	1,288,393

This shows a loss of nearly fifty per cent. But, as before, if we would reach the exact truth, we must allow for the new system of admeasurement.

Registered tunnage, 1861	2,642,628
“ “ “ 1867	1,351,235
Less ten per cent	135,123—1,216,112
	1,423,816

The absolute decline, therefore, in the foreign tunnage of the country, from 1861 to 1867, has been fifty-four per cent., or nearly a million and a half of tons.

GROWTH OF OUR TUNNAGE IN THE PAST.

Let us examine this state of things in another aspect. From almost the beginning of our history as a nation, our traffic upon the sea has been steadily increasing, with occasional reverses, as between 1811 and 1814, and 1818 and 1825. Even during the period of the last war with Great Britain, our foreign tunnage fell off only twelve and a half per cent., although it should be said that during the two years previous to that war, it fell off twenty-two per cent. We have prepared the following table for the purpose of indicating the changes which have taken place in the registered tunnage of the country for the eight years, from 1889 to 1797, and from 1797, by decades, to 1867—

Year.	Reg'd tunnage.	Change.	Rate of change
1789	123,893		
1797	697,777	Increase in 8 years	473,884 or 384½ per cent.
1807	848,307	" 10 "	250,530 or 42 "
1817	800,725	Decrease in 10 "	47,582 or 5½ "
1827	747,170	" 10 "	53,555 or 6½ "
1837	810,447	Increase in 10 "	62,277 or 8½ "
1847	1,241,313	" in 10 "	430,866 or 53½ "
1857	2,463,067	" in 10 "	1,222,654 or 99½ "
1867	1,354,234	Decrease in 10 "	1,109,732 or 45 "

This table shows an average gain of eighty and a half per cent. for the periods given, including the remarkable growth which took place between 1789 and 1797, when, in consequence of the wars then prevailing among the maritime powers of Europe, our foreign tunnage increased three hundred and eighty-four and a half per cent., and including also the decades between 1807 and 1827, when there was a decrease of five and a half and six and a half per cent., respectively. As the period from 1789 to 1797 may be considered exceptional, let us look at the growth of our foreign tunnage during the three decades between 1827 and 1857, and eight and a half per cent., and yet the average of the three is fifty-three and three-eighths per cent. In looking forward in 1857, through the coming ten years, it would not have been thought ex travagant to anticipate an increase equal to the average of the previous thirty years. Let us see how much this difference really is, between what in 1857 would not have been an unreasonable anticipation, and the existing fact—

In 1857 our foreign or registered tunnage was.....	2,463,967
Add 51½ per cent. for the average growth per decade from 1827 to 1857..	1,318,142
Our tunnage might have been expected to reach in 1867.....	3,779,109
Our actual tunnage in 1867, was.....	1,354,235
Allow ten per cent. for new system of admeasurement.....	135,423
Showing a net difference of	2,500,297

or, instead of a gain of fifty-three and three-eighths per cent., a loss of sixty-eight per cent.; and leaving our foreign tunnage less than one-third of what in 1857 we should have been justified by past experience in estimating that it would be.

AMERICAN STEAM COMMERCE.

Our calculations thus far have not discriminated between sailing vessels and steamers. We will now turn to the foreign steam commerce of the United States, in which we shall discover a state of things still more unsatisfactory.

Our foreign steam shipping may be said to date from 1848, when it amounted to about sixteen thousand tons. In 1849 it was nearly twenty-one thousand tons. During the next year it more than doubled; and it steadily increased down to 1855, when it reached one hundred and fifteen thousand tons. From that time onward for several years it did not hold its own, its aggregate in 1862 being less by a thousand tons than it was in 1855. In 1867 it amounted to one hundred and seventy-five and a half thousand tons; this, including the mail service between the Atlantic and Pacific States, but not the steamers on the northern lakes which call at British American ports. The following table will furnish an analysis of the growth of American ocean steam tunnage in the period referred to—

Year.	Foreign steam tun'ge.	Increase.	Rate of increase
1848	16,068
1849	20,870	4,802	30 per cent.
1850	44,429	23,559	113 "
1851	62,390	17,961	40 "
1852	79,704	17,314	28 "
1853	90,520	10,816	13½ "
1854	95,006	4,516	5 "
1855	115,045	20,009	21½ "

We here see that the average gain per annum from 1848 to 1855 was thirty-six per cent. If we take out of the account the year 1850, when the increase was one hundred and thirteen per cent.

as being exceptional, we still have an annual average gain of twenty-three per cent. At this latter rate of increase, had it continued, the steam tonnage of the United States would have reached in 1862, three hundred thousand tons; instead of this, it was only, as already given, one hundred and fourteen thousand tons, less by one thousand tons than it was seven years previously, and sixty-two per cent. less than it would have been under the former ratio of development.

STEAM COMMERCE OF GREAT BRITAIN.

For the sake of comparison, we will now turn to the statistics of the foreign steam shipping of Great Britain, for the interval covered by the foregoing calculations. We invite attention to these, in the tabulated form in which we have placed them—

BRITISH STEAM TUNNAGE EMPLOYED, IN WHOLE OR IN PART, IN FOREIGN SERVICE.

Year.	Tonnage.	Change	Rate.
1851.....	65,921
1852.....	65,921	increase 32,692	49 1/2 per cent.
1853.....	132,739	" 34,176	34 1/2 "
1854.....	158,635	" 25,846	19 1/2 "
1855.....	231,541	" 72,906	46 "
1856.....	263,439	" 31,898	13 1/2 "
1857.....	288,882	" 25,443	9 1/2 "
1858.....	278,465	decrease 10,417	3 1/2 "
1859.....	298,650	increase 20,185	7 1/2 "
1860.....	307,240	" 8,590	3 "
1861.....	338,339	" 31,149	10 "
1862.....	357,773	" 19,384	5 1/2 "

From these tables it will appear that in 1861, the foreign steam tonnage of the United States and of Great Britain were almost equal, that of the former being 62,399 tons, and that of the latter 65,921 tons. The difference between the two has been gradually increasing from that time to the present; although at first the variation was less marked than it has been in recent years. In 1855, the United States had only doubled its foreign steam tonnage since 1851, while that of Great Britain had gained nearly fourfold. But in 1856, as already stated, we began to fall even to hold our own, and in 1862 we had not recovered ourselves. On the other hand, Great Britain, except in 1858, had been steadily advancing year by year, and in 1862 had added forty per cent. to her steam tonnage of 1857, and had multiplied that of 1851 nearly six fold. If, in the United States, the average rate of increase from 1848 to 1855 had been continued down to 1862, we should then have had within about sixty thousand tons of the foreign steam shipping of Great Britain. As it was, however, the British tonnage had grown to more than three times our own; and this most calamitous condition of affairs at the beginning of the civil war was, as was to be expected, aggravated by the events which followed. With the figures of 1862 before us, we need not be surprised by those of 1867.

1867—FOREIGN STEAM TUNNAGE.

Great Britain, estimate.....	775,000
United States.....	175,520
Difference.....	599,480

This difference of nearly six hundred thousand tons is more than the combined steam tonnage of the United States and Great Britain five years ago.

THE CAUSES OF THE DECLINE IN AMERICAN TUNNAGE.

It needs no argument to show that the decline of our commerce upon the ocean which the statistics we have attempted to collate so emphatically illustrate, is owing to causes as marked and as exceptional as the effect which they have produced. No ordinary fluctuations of supply and demand—no commercial vicissitudes, such as those of which we have had any experience—could have proved sufficient, not only to arrest the annual gain in tonnage, which had been almost uninterrupted during seventy years, but also to reduce this tonnage by more than one-half. The American nation has been engaged in foreign wars, and it has been overtaken by financial revolutions; but neither the wars nor the revolutions of the past have ever affected its ocean commerce to anything like this extent. Where, then, shall we make search for causes adequate to accomplish such a result? In replying to this inquiry, we must again distinguish between the sailing and the steam tonnage employed in our foreign trade.

THE EFFECT OF THE WAR UPON OUR SAILING TUNNAGE.

So far as relates to our sailing tonnage, we may safely affirm that nearly the whole of the decline which we now have occasion to deplore is the result of the late war of rebellion, and of circum-

stances attending or growing out of it. In that conflict, the weakness of the National government and of the loyal people—as is always the case with commercial nations, and in precise proportion to their commercial strength—was on the ocean. Our vessels were every where exposed to capture, and the government was unable to protect them. Many were taken and destroyed; but these were few as compared with others which were sold and transferred to foreign owners. The flag of the weakest power in Europe furnished an immunity to property afloat which our own could not give. American merchants, therefore were obliged to sell their shipping to those who could use it with safety and profit. The almost complete cessation of shipbuilding for mercantile purposes followed as a necessary consequence. Thus, while the tonnage of the nation was rapidly disappearing by the ravages of the rebel cruisers and by sales abroad, in addition to the usual loss by the perils of the sea, there was no construction of new vessels going forward, to counteract the decline even in part.

Nor did the cessation of actual hostilities bring any relief to the crippled branch of our national industry. The annual decline was nearly if not quite as great during the two or three years which succeeded the restoration of peace as at any time during the continuance of the war; and we are not sure that it has yet been stopped. The returns of 1868 have not been made public; but the registered sail tonnage of 1867 was less than that of 1847, making no allowance for the new mode of measurement, and less than that of 1844, making this allowance. It is nearly four years since the last instance of capture and destruction on the high seas was reported; but the process of sale has not altogether ceased, and the loss by disasters and by ordinary wear and tear estimated at ten or twelve per cent. per annum, has been going on. And in the meantime, our shipyards have remained quiet and unused. Except for the coasting trade, very few vessels are on the stocks to-day; and these, in most instances, are built for special purposes, and supply no evidence of improvement in the general business of shipowning. Evidently, therefore, disastrous influences are still at work; and we must ascertain what they are before we seek to apply measures designed to check and overcome them.

RELATIONS OF THE CURRENCY TO THE SHIPPING INTEREST.

One of the influences comes from the present depreciated condition of our currency. This affects the national industry in every department, but especially the shipping interest, because this is obliged to compete, in the maritime centers of the globe, with tonnage built on a gold basis, and consequently at a comparatively low cost of labor and materials. This was forcibly stated by a delegate from Milwaukee, at the commercial convention held in Boston last winter. "Why," said he, "are your ships rotting at your wharves? It is because we are away from the rock bottom on which the nations of the earth transact business. When we can get back to the right basis, we shall again have free commercial intercourse with the world." Of course, with a redundant and irredeemable currency, we can not compete in the construction of vessels, with the people of those countries in which a specie standard prevails to regulate prices and to give stability to values.

TARIFF AND INTERNAL TAXATION.

Our present tariff and system of internal taxation, also, have operated prejudicially to the shipping interest of the country. The effect of the tariff has been, first, in protecting and promoting production at home, to diminish our foreign trade, and so, to lessen the demand for tonnage; and, secondly, in connection with internal taxes, to enhance the price of many of the most important materials used in building and outfitting vessels. The legislation of the last few years, while developing almost every kind of manufactures, has made it well nigh impossible for our mechanics to build ships for use in general commerce, or for our merchants to own them. A careful estimate shows that the duties paid on the foreign iron, copper, hemp and other articles entering into the construction and completion of an American vessel amount to seven dollars a ton in gold. As against this, the policy of Great Britain and other maritime nations is to remit the supplies, so as to encourage their foreign trade to the utmost. What hope of successful competition in the carrying trade of the ocean can be for American ships under these circumstances?

As the result of depreciation of our currency and severity of our taxation we have on authority of Hon. Mr. Pike, of Maine, a thousand ton ship would cost a builder of his State \$85,000 in currency, while a similar vessel could be built in adjoining British provinces for \$45,000 in gold. And, as was truly said by this gentleman in the House of Representatives last winter: "It is apparent that our ships can not compete with foreign ships, when the difference of cost is so large, unless a corresponding advantage is in some way given, in the way of employment. But the House is aware, an American ship has no such advantages. She competes with her rival on a free trade basis. The St. John ship comes in the port of New York and gets the same freight and is subject to the same insurance as the American ship. The only privilege the American ship has is that of coastwise trade, and that is hardly appreciable.

We have testimony to the same effect in a dispatch on the commercial policy of Great Britain, addressed by Mr. Morse, United States Consul at London, under date of January 1, 1868 to Mr. Seward, in which it is said: "Taxation on importations is necessary for revenue, and to encourage and strengthen the growth of some of our industries by limiting foreign competition in our home markets; but it seriously cripples, and may fatally wound an interest, the position and value of which can not be determined by ourselves. As long as our ports are wisely kept open to the reception of cargoes from foreign ships, as long as the freedom of the sea is maintained and we send our ships out thereon to seek business in its harbors and commercial ports we must go into the freight markets of the world as nearly on an equality with all mar time powers as possible. In those markets the true practical value of American ships must be determined, whatever nominal or fictitious value our legislation may attempt to force upon them within our limits. This legislation can give a high comparative value to our coasting tonnage, because of that we have and we hold the monopoly, and admit no foreign competition. But when we go beyond the reach of

the local laws which secure this monopoly—and all maritime nations practically secure to themselves this home trade in some way—the true value of such out-going ships is in reality controlled by the contestants for the prizes of commerce, and not by ourselves. If by means of excessive taxation we place a cost value on American tonnage so far above that of our competitors and if we continue the use of perishable materials instead of iron in its construction, we shall in time, by our own voluntary action, exclude ourselves from this most desirable and honorable international competition, acknowledge ourselves unequal to the contest disperse our keels, call home our flag, and circumscribe that commerce which but so recently led all rivals in the race of the seas, to the comparatively narrow limits of our coasts, rivers and lakes.

THE POLICIES OF THE BRITISH AND AMERICAN GOVERNMENTS COMPARED.

We need not look far for an explanation of the foregoing facts. The British government has had a policy in reference to ocean steam commerce, definite comprehensive and persistent; the policy of our government on this subject has been uncertain, partial and spasmodic. The former regards an annual expenditure of a million sterling in the maintenance of its packet service as one of its most judicious outlays; one of its best investments; believing as an English statesman once expressed it that "swift ships bring swift orders for goods." The latter has of late certainly regarded it as a wiser economy to pay several hundred thousand dollars a year to foreign companies for the conveyance of its mails, than to make grants to its own citizens to encourage them to undertake this service. Only once has there been legislation at Washington in relation to this great interest, in any degree worthy of the issues involved; and even then the principles which govern all judicious and sound encouragement of ocean steamship enterprise, would seem not to have been distinctly apprehended. It is necessary at this time to discuss the treatment of the Collins Company by our government, a though it ought to be said that the failure of the line, sooner or later, was, in our judgment, inevitable managed as it was whether its subventions had been continued to it or not. For ourselves, we have never blamed the government, which had been only too lenient from the first, for withholding further payment of money after the loss of the "Pacific." We do not see how these could properly have been continued except with new guarantees and under more safe restrictions. But in our view, Congress made a most serious mistake at that juncture, in not immediately appointing a special committee to inquire into all the causes of the company's embarrassment, and particularly into all the circumstances, so far as known, of the destruction of its steamers. Such a committee might have reported with a scheme for the reconstitution of the line upon a more careful and conservative plan; or with a project for the organization of an entirely new company, which should profit by the misfortunes of its predecessor and perform the service in the interest of the nation, which it had undertaken, but had proved itself unable to carry out. Instead of this, Congress gave up the whole question in despair, and apparently acted on the presumption that where Mr. Collins had failed, no one else could succeed. Judicious investigation and wise discrimination might have led to new efforts on the part of our merchants, notwithstanding the discouragements of the past; and in 1861 we might have had a commercial steam marine which no privateers could injure, and which would have been of incalculable advantage to the government and to the nation during the war.

Apart then, from the question of currency, two measures are in our judgment indispensable to the revival of our carrying trade; first, the remission of import duties and internal taxes on the chief articles required for the construction and outfit of vessels to be employed in foreign commerce; second, governmental encouragement, by a well defined system of subsidies to ocean steam lines.

In 1861 the tonnage of the globe was distributed as follows:

	Tons.
Owned by the United States.....	5,539,813
" Great Britain and dependencies.....	5,895,369
" all other nations.....	5,800,767
	<hr/> 17,235,949

Of this total the United States owned nearly one-third, Great Britain over one-third, and all other maritime nations the remaining third. Mr. Morse, United States consul at London, in a dispatch to Mr. Seward, dated January 1, 1868, estimates that eight millions of this tonnage were employed in the international carrying trade; and he divides the amount thus:

	Tons.
Belonging to the United States.....	2,642,683
" Great Britain.....	3,179,628
" all other nations.....	2,177,689
	<hr/> 8,000,000

Mr. Morse says: "Such was the sagacity and intelligence of our merchants, the capability and adventurous spirit of our mariners, and the taste and skill of our shipwrights, that, in open competition with old maritime nations of Europe, who had been for centuries contending for ocean supremacy, they won for our young Republic, not yet a century old, nearly one-third of the international ocean carrying trade of the civilized world."—[Ex. Doc. No. 283, pp. 5-6.]

The British Almanac gives the tonnage of Great Britain, January 1, 1867, including 29,937 tons foreign built, admitted to register during the previous year, as 7,307,851.

"The disastrous effect of the war of the rebellion upon our foreign trade claim our special attention, and they can hardly be overstated. During the continuance of the war every branch of Northern industry upon the land was promoted and strengthened. Production and manufactures prospered to an unwonted degree, and the tendency of every step in our National legislation was to stimulate that prosperity. It will be sufficient to refer to a single State to illustrate this. An abstract of the census of Massachusetts for the State fiscal years 1854-5 and 1864-5 respectively, prepared by Mr. E. B. Elliott, shows that during the latter year, as compared with the former, the

production of leather, boots and shoes, had increased nearly fifty per cent.; of cotton goods and caicoes had more than doubled; of paper had more than doubled; of clothing had nearly doubled, and of wooden goods had increased fourfold. Contrast now, this statement with the statistics of the tonnage of Massachusetts for the same years. On the 30th of June, 1855, the total tonnage of this commonwealth, foreign and domestic was 979,205 tons; on the 30th of June, 1865, it was 248,836 tons, or about one-eighth of what it was ten years previously. Startling as the difference is which is thus developed, it is not difficult to account for it when we recall the experiences of the war. Not only did the shipping interest not participate in the stimulus received by other branches of enterprise, but it was exposed to the attack of the enemy, as all the others were not; indeed, it was the vulnerable point of the nation, and how much it suffered the figures we have quoted show only too clearly. What the raid into Pennsylvania, and the burning of Chambersburg was, in one memorable instance, was, in effect, repeated upon every sea traversed by our merchant vessels. They were soon driven from the ocean; the only alternative for those that escaped the treacherous pirate was sale, either absolute or pro forma, to a foreign owner, whose flag could afford protection while ours could not. The disappearance of our shipping, therefore, need be no mystery to any of us."

ART. VIII.—DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE.

1.—THE SUGAR CROP AND SUGAR INTERESTS OF LOUISIANA.

We commend to our readers North and South the practical and conclusive comparison between the sugar plantation, and grain and vegetable farms of the Eastern States. The author of the communication is a gentleman of experience and ability, and his estimates may be relied on. We would indeed wish that he had made the comparative expense accounts of the two farms still more minute, carrying labor, interest on cost of lands, and other charges on the respective crops into the account. We are convinced that such a comparison would make the value of our sugar estates still more apparent. We expect to present in our next issue a complete manual of rice culture, with the most approved implements for the preparation of our grain for market. There is a great disposition among sugar planters of our acquaintance, to turn their attention to rice culture in Louisiana. There is less manual labor necessary in its production, and it is regarded as a very certain crop. We hope our cotemporaries of the press who favor immigration into the South, will notice the comparative profits of sugar and grain farms. [Ed. Rev.]

A very considerable disturbance has occurred in the sugar culture of Louisiana, by means of the war, the principal of which has been the destruction of slave labor by the emancipation of the negroes. At this present time of writing, the negroes have generally returned to their accustomed labor, which, owing to various causes is far from being as efficient as it was formerly. There is no means of ascertaining to what extent without a census being made. Some were drafted as soldiers in the federal army and killed, many died from want of medical attendance, and the care and attention which they were accustomed to receive from their masters when slaves. This may amount by gross calculation to one-fourth, or one-third. It is to the personal knowledge of the writer, that nearly one-half belonging to certain plantations have died off since the war by disease, destitution and debauchery. To what extent they have migrated it is impossible to ascertain. Some have come from a distance, others have gone, nobody knows where, generally they have left the plantation and agglomerated in towns. Those that wander about doing occasional jobs of work for a livelihood, are generally left to take care of themselves, or rather take their chance as hazard makes it for them, receiving little sympathy from any one. Those who have remained attached to the old place are cared for a little better, it being also the interest of the employer to maintain them in health and comfort to make their labor available and useful. Notwithstanding the fair wages which they can always obtain, when they will work, yet many of them may be seen idle, and it is a mystery how they can live. It is true they can live upon very little, being used to sloth and filth and to rough and hard fare, and petty larceny is but too common among them. The planters well know that the best policy is to feed and clothe them well to obtain efficient labor. Consequently, those who are industrious

enough to work, fare much the best. Very few are provident enough to economize anything on their wages, although they might do so better than white persons, because they have less artificial wants. Their want of foresight makes them wasteful when they have plenty. The wages they receive on plantations for ordinary field hands, vary from twelve to twenty dollars, per month, with board. The labor has been modified for adaptation to the new circumstances, their indolence, caprice, etc. In the prosperous times before the war, much of the canals and ditches were made by Irishmen, at high rates of wages. They would be employed again if they were here, but they have almost disappeared. That kind of labor can hardly be obtained now from the negroes at any price. The want of it is yet not much perceived, because no new lands have been brought into cultivation. But before long the old works will want to be made over again and maintained in order to avoid filling up.

In former times, when a planter was hard pressed for work, the hands could be encouraged or pushed to some extra labor, generally, and often generously remunerated, but now it is a little more difficult, the planter must then combine his work differently and not overcrop himself as was sometimes done. Another cause of the diminution of labor is, that few of the women are willing to do as much hard work as they did formerly,

If, then, all these causes of the diminution of labor, and the difference in the quality of it be taken into account, it need not excite any surprise that nearly, if not quite one-half of the sugar lands are lying idle. It is true that many of the planters have been ruined, and are not able to make advances and remunerate labor as well as they might wish to do, but at the same time, it must strike any one very forcibly, who will reflect upon it, and consider the circumstances, that to occupy all the open and established lands, labor must come from elsewhere. It must also appear that this want of labor is one of the causes for the depreciation in the price of lands. Another cause is the want of means and capital of those who own lands to bring them into cultivation. Where the labor is to come from is a question that may appear startling when it is borne in mind that there is no more compulsory labor, and no means to procure it. But the question is one really of easy solution. It will be regulated just as the supply and demand in trade, regulates the value of commodities; or like water seeks its own level. Labor will certainly come where it is most profitable. It is then only be a question of giving time to people to open their eyes. The South is not known. The people of the North and West seem to be ignorant of the South, as they are of Japan or Australia. And we hear of people traveling far, and seeking to better themselves by going to foreign countries, when they have given the gold field the go by! What are the prices for lands now in Louisiana, and particularly lower Louisiana? From 10 to 30 dollars per acre. And what lands? Cleared and improved, by ditching, canaling, buildings, dwellings, machinery, etc. Let us consider the value of these, we shall suppose of 100 acres, as compared with woodland—

Clearing 200 acres at \$50	\$10,000
Two canals.....	800
Ditches.....	1,200
Dwelling house and other buildings.....	5,000
Perhaps a sugar house and machinery.....	10,000
Fencing.....	1,000
Levee.....	1,000

\$29,000

Land, 100 acres, which in Pennsylvania would be worth \$100 per acre 10,000

\$39,000

That is just \$39,000, the actual value, and it can be bought now, at what price? from ten to thirty dollars per acre, improvements and all!

To show that a small or large farm in Louisiana will compare favorably for profits and revenue with a farm in Pennsylvania, Delaware or Maryland, an example may be given, as follows, and selected close at hand that any one can see by going six miles below New Orleans, left bank:

Mr. B's farm of 125 acres—products of 1868.

7000 pounds of rice at 7c.....	\$4,900
600 barrels sweet potatoes at \$1 50	900
400 barrels Irish potatoes at 3 50	1,400
200 cords of wood at 4 00	800
30 acres of cane, which this year would have produced 50 hhds. sugar, but sold for plant cane at \$1 25 per acre	3,750

\$11,750

The cultivation required six mules, and labor at the rate of about one hand to 15 acres.

We shall compare with a farm of which an example is given in the Patent Office report of 1865, Camden, New Jersey; farm of 107 acres:

236 bushels of wheat on nine acres.....	\$ 626 36
1460 bushels corn on seventeen and a half acres.....	2,190 00
102 tons of hay on forty-six acres.....	3,000 00
1680 bushels potatoes on eleven acres.....	1,600 00
592 bushels carrots on one and one-half acres.....	460 00
2000 cabbages on a half acre.....	160 00
200 barrels turnips.....	132 00
950 pounds butter.....	515 40
3598 quarts milk and cream.....	328 72
Calves, swine, beef.....	382 00
Chickens and eggs.....	221 00
Straw.....	380 00

\$10,055 00

And now, compare the immense amount of labor required on the New Jersey farm with the simple products in Louisiana—remark that a great portion of the products of the Northern farm are market products, requiring the immediate neighborhood of a town to find sale for them—remark the manure applied on it—

220 one horse cart loads of manure

4 tons superphosphate of lime

1200 barrels lime

40 bushels ground gypsum

On the Louisiana farm—none.

Let us see what would be the products of the 200 acres farm cultivated for sugar alone.

The reasons are more or less favorable for the yield of cane. This year it was about 2,000 lb to the acre, and 80 gallons molasses. It is seldom under 1200 to the acre, with the proportionate amount of molasses. We will take the lowest estimate.—

200 hhds. sugar of 1200 lb at 9 cts.....	\$21,600
200 barrels molasses.....	4,800

\$ 26,400

In a favorable season like that of 1868, the yield would have been more, and such a farm can be purchased now for \$15,000!

The estimated price of the farm in New Jersey, given above as an example, was \$125 per acre.

We may now institute another comparison between the Louisiana farm and the New Jersey farm. The greater part of New England is a hilly and rocky country, the land lying often in small patches. These impediments are perhaps not very serious when it is considered that the products are much varied; here a patch of one thing, there of another, a vineyard, an orchard, a boulder stone, a knoll, a gully, a creek and a thousand accidents to diversify the scene, and make it pleasing to the eye for its dales and landscapes; these are beauties of no secondary order, and should meet with all their meed of tribute to merit. But we are in a utilitarian age, where dollars and cents have much of our admiration. The Louisiana farm lies on a almost perfect level, some five or six feet lower than the waters of the Mississippi. There is no occasion for alarm from that circumstance. The writer has lived 38 years in the neighborhood of that farm and not once has it been flooded, nor perhaps 38 years before. On that level ground a stump is

not to be seen, and a man could not pick up a stone to throw at a bird to save his life, there is not a square foot of that farm but is just like the adjoining one. Any one who has ever walked between the plow stils can form an idea how pleasant it is to plow there—and this is not all; the inventive genius of the age comes to our assistance with a labor saving instrument, in the form of a steam plow, lately patented by Mr. J. C. Delavigne, one of our citizens of the South, who says he has made an iron negro, that cannot be emancipated; that machine will run on the level of the Louisiana farm; with two or three men it will plow 15 acres per day, or cultivate 45 acres, it will go all over the field, it will harrow, or sow, or reap, or haul, and do almost any thing it may be wanted to do; the purchaser of the Louisiana farm can have one. But it is below its dignity to have any thing to do with such a small matter as a hundred acre farm. Give the steam monster elbow room on a thousand acres, and be sure he will never say he is tired. He will not cost more than the price of 12 mules, and he will do the work of 24, and never eat any corn. The Louisiana bottom lands are all alike, they are generally of a light texture containing much sand, and of easy cultivation. Those farther removed from the river are more stiff and heavy to plow, but are best for cane. They require a peculiar cultivation. It is necessary to plant them in the fall to let the plowed ground receive the action of the weather; if it should freeze it will be so much the better. Such a soil then becomes very light for after cultivation. If plowed deep with the steam plow, to 12 or 15 inches once in two or three years, the surface drainage would be much improved, and highly beneficial to any kind of crop.

Let us take a view of the map of Louisiana and see what is called sugar lands.

From the mouth of the Red River down to the parish of Plaquemine—distance about 300 miles, banks of Atchafalaya, bayou Plaquemine and Lafourche, Terrebonne and Black, about 150 miles; banks of bayous Boeuf, Courtableau and Teche 150 miles; making 600 miles.

These lands all have an inclination uniformly from the stream with a fall of about 4 feet per mile and an average width of about $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles on each side, of land susceptible of cultivation without artificial draining, which would double the area, making an aggregate of 1800 square miles—acres, 1,152,000; other lands, in interior places, almost as well adapted for sugar, would make an amount of about 2,000,000 acres, which would be equal to at least as many hogsheds.

These lands are of inexhaustible fertility, being alluvial lands, made up for thousands of years by the deposits of the Mississippi and Red Rivers, and all on water courses giving an uninterrupted navigation to New Orleans, the most distant being a run of 24 hours.

Cultivation of cane—a much easier one than that of cotton—fit for the white man—a much surer crop than cotton.—The cultivation of cane is one of the most simple kind. It is exactly the same as that of corn. The plant shoots up out of the ground early in the spring, in March and April, and requires to be plowed 3 or 4 times, to keep it free from grass and weeds. There is not much work for the hoe. It has, however, to be used in the immediate neighborhood of the foot of the plant, where the plow can not reach, and it is used to finish up the hilling to a height of six or eight inches. The planting is the most laborious part of the operation, so much so, that it is a customary saying among the farmers that when the crop is up it is half made.

Planting—The ground to receive plant cane should be plowed in the fall, to have it well prepared for planting as soon as the grinding is finished. It requires about one acre to plant four, an allowance, however, being made, for a portion of the plant that may be spoiled in the matts which are laid down in the fall before the grinding season. The rows are laid off to a distance of six to ten feet, according to the fancy of the cultivator. The cane is laid in a furrow, two canes side and side, to insure a good stand, and covered with four to six inches of soil. The planters in Louisiana are not prone to innovations, and they are much disposed to do as their fathers did. It is probable, however, that improvements could be introduced in the mode of cultivation, and in the use of manures, where lands have been cropped continuously for a long time. Some experiment have been made with guano, it is said with good success, but no experiments made with system have been reported. Judging by analogy of the benefit produced by it on a crop of corn on exhausted soils, it may be presumed it would be equally beneficial for

cane, perhaps with the effect of increasing the yield from 50 to 100 per cent. Aside from the vigor of growth which it gives to the plant, it would probably hasten the maturity several weeks by giving it an early start to grow in the spring, and thus also giving it a better chance to withstand the effects of the drought which usually occurs in the months of May and June. Every planter well knows the benefits in increased yield and quality derived from a few weeks maturity in the grinding season, amounting to a difference of perhaps 50 per cent. in grinding on the 1st of November or December. Therefore, anything that can be done for hastening the maturity will be highly proper. By starting the plant to grow vigorously in the spring, it attains in July a size sufficient to lay by—finishing cultivation—when it will be large enough to shade the ground and stop the grass and weeds from growing. It has been observed, and well established, that if plowed as late as August, it remains green longer and attains maturity later.

There are two good reasons why guano should be experimented with now in a reliable manner. Guano, or the superphosphate of lime is now manufactured cheaply—especially since the discovery of the great beds of phosphate of lime, near Charleston South Carolina. It should be determined by the experiments which is the best kind, and that kind could always be obtained of the exact chemical composition required. Another reason for the use of guano is this; at this time labor costs much more than it did formerly, and the plant cane also costs more, and above all, the price of sugar is theretofore of what it was before the war. If an expense and outlay of money formerly to the extent of \$15 or \$20 per acre was not warranted by the price of the product and the cost of labor, the case is very different now. Suppose the yield of an acre 1200 lb sugar at $4\frac{1}{2}$ cents, \$42, and molasses \$6, total \$48. Now, the same is worth about \$150. The plant cane for one acre about \$75 instead of \$25 formerly, then, if the outlay in former times of \$15 would have produced \$48 twice by doubling the product, it will now double the product of \$150, and make it \$300. The experiment is certainly worth being tried thoroughly. The superphosphate can be obtained from the manufactory at 1½ cents per pound, probably much less than the value of \$15 would be sufficient for one acre. It cannot be done by theory. The planter cannot afford to depend on theory, he must have actual experiment and practice. The quantity must be ascertained, the time and the manner of employing, whether put in the drill or spread broadcast, whether on the surface, or mixed in the ground, whether all at once, or at different times. This can be done in the first season by acting differently on various pieces, and keeping a record of it.

In regard to the mode of planting and cultivating and its effect on the maturity of the cane, the writer speaks of experiments made by himself, with cane, and on a sufficiently large quantity to avoid mistakes.

One season the cane had been planted by the overseer in the way that was usual with him, and he had done it for forty years, and did not know how to do any thing else. The rows were six feet apart, and the ground prepared by running three furrow on each side, with a turn plow, and putting the cane down in the open furrow, to be covered either with the plow or hoe. That year it rained nearly continuously for three months in the winter and spring, and the cane all rotted; the crop was lost. Upon representations being made to him it was suggested that by planting in a ridge instead of in the water furrow, the danger of rotting might be avoided. Accordingly he planted them in ridge and covered very lightly. There occurred a comp etc drought of six weeks from the first of March to the 15th of April, and the cane all died out. He was dismissed, and afterwards cane was planted according to theory, with the conditions of avoiding the two extremes which had caused the loss of the crops, and the cane was covered with six inches of soil, with the view to protect it against the drought and the late frosts of spring, and a water furrow between the rows, lower than the cane. In that manner it never afterwards failed. A further experiment was made on 25 acres with the view of ascertaining what could be obtained in maturity and size by planting differently. The land was newly cleared and very rich, having been cultivated one year in corn. Ten acres were planted at seven feet apart; the balance at twelve feet, with a row of corn between. The cane was all larger than usual in consequence of the quality of the land. It was cut for the mill, (cutting off about two feet of the unripe top), leaving it with 12 to 16 points and from 6 to 10 feet in length. But

this mode of judging of size is very indefinite. The cane on the ten acre, grew very tall and slender, and from being very thick and shading the ground, it was unripe. That on the piece planted at twelve feet was much larger in diameter, some of them as much as two inches, whilst the others were from one to one and a half inches, and were much riper. The difference in weight, on an average, of the cane in the two pieces, was at about 7 to 12 pounds. It should be observed that the difference in size from one to two inches diameter, does not make a difference of as one to two, but as one to four. The cane of the two pieces was cut and carried to the mill from the 10th to 14th of November, the frost not having injured it in the least degree. The two pieces were carefully ground separately, and particular attention is called to the result. It required three days and nights to run the ten acres of the first piece through the mill, producing 11 hhds. of sugar. The second piece planted at twelve feet was then entered upon, and in the same time of three days and nights, there were made 18 hhds. of sugar, from 12 acres. Now, that the data is given, any one can indulge in and make calculations of the result. The effect of planting the rows wide apart seems to be, that having more air and sunshine the cane matures better, and grows larger. The economy in labor is evident, and the saving in plant cane has become an item of considerable importance in comparison with what it was formerly.

Another mode of planting, is to do it in the fall season, before the time has arrived for grinding. As this cannot be delayed on account of the approach of the frost, the spare time for planting is very short, and must be employed with the utmost economy and the greatest labor saving. For this purpose the following plan has been successfully adopted in old lands, for the double purpose of saving labor and improving the land by planting cow peas between the rows. It should be remarked that in poor lands, not much dependence can be placed in stubble for a second crop, especially if the cane is cut early in the season, and wherever cane is cut for matting before the 1st of November, the stubble is so much injured as to be almost worthless. The plan then, is to lay off the rows 6 feet apart, planting two rows of cane and two rows of corn alternately, and the latter planted with cow peas. In the month of October, when the corn has been removed, a furrow is opened where the corn row stood, and the cane cut along side and planted, thereby, saving the labor of matting, and avoiding the risk of loss by the damaging of the plant cane in the matt. That it is absolutely sure that the cane planted is fresh and sound. The labor also of hauling the cane from the matt over a plowed field, is avoided. As the cane thus planted immediately takes root and grows, and has a start much in advance of that planted later in the winter. In this manner by the saving of the portion allowed for loss in the matt, one acre would plant probably one-fourth more. The following year the stubble row would be plowed up and planted in corn, and so on in succession, leaving plant cane to grind every year, and all the time the land being improved. The results of the experiments made in this way of cultivating is 50 per cent. greater yield relatively to the quantity of cane, which would amply compensate for the sacrifice of the stubble.

It would be very long, if not impossible to foresee and explain every detail peculiar to the cultivation of cane, it would therefore be prudent for one not thoroughly familiar with it to consult with, and take the advice of men of experience, taking care, however, to guard against the fanciful notions of some cultivators. It might be possible that a dozen, would each advise a different thing, and the greater part of them in error. And that would prove that there is room for considerable improvement.

The experiments above related, have been thoroughly made. If any one should have doubts, and entertain fear in making innovations, he may be reassured by reflecting that he would not incur the slightest risk. The planted cane will produce any how, and there would be no labor lost. If the experiments succeed, he will have ascertained some important facts, much to his benefit.

It may be remarked that where the cane is planted at a distance of twelve feet, a row of corn may be put between without injury to the cane. The corn is dry in July, when the cane has three or four months to grow.

In the example in the farm below New Orleans, cited above, the Irish potatoes were produced between the rows of cane. But where a crop, such as cane, so

much more valuable, is cultivated, it is probable no time could be conveniently allotted to such extra products as potatoes.

The Kind of Labor Bestowed on Cane—Is one which suits the white man as well as the negro. The hardest part is that of planting, which has to be done in the rough and unpleasant season of winter. As it must be done at a particular time, it is often not possible to postpone it to wait for fine weather. The after cultivation is simple, and usually terminated early in July.

The cultivation constitutes a regular rotation of work, from the 1st of January to the 31st of December. The first work is planting. By the time that is finished, a portion of it is up and wants cultivation, then comes the corn which is planted in March, April, or May; cultivation is finished in July; then comes the gathering of corn and hay; then cutting and hauling wood for fuel for the sugar house; then comes mending of fences, ditches, etc., and the grinding season has arrived, which takes up the balance of the year.

It is better for a white man than the cultivation of cotton—For several reasons. The cotton requires much more work with the hoe, and must be cultivated longer, in the hottest part of the year. Then comes the picking, where the laborer is exposed to be wet and chilled by the morning dew, and then scorched in the hot sun of August and September. This very generally brings on fever and ague. It is somewhat more important for a certain work to be done at a particular time in the cultivation of cotton than of cane. If the cotton field is caught by the grass, it is greatly damaged if not lost; whilst cane may be retrieved; it is possible to make a crop of sugar from stubble cane without any cultivation at all, but cotton would be entirely lost. The latitude which the laborer has in the cultivation of cane to select the time for work, is an item of considerable importance.

The manufacture of sugar is a subject that has occupied the attention of men of intelligence, of chemists, and mechanicians. There are a variety of systems, and each have their partisans.

The great improvements that have been made consist in the steam trains, vacuum pans, and centrifugal machines. These last require a peculiar mode of granulation for their successful operation, and this is a part of the art of the sugar boiler. But latterly, a great improvement has been in the manufacture of yellow sugar by the use of sulphurous acid gas. The steam apparatus and vacuum are costly, and require men of special talents, as engineers and manipulators. Their advantage over the ordinary open kettle trains consists in that they produce a finer quality of sugar, and extract more sugar from a given quantity of cane, with less molasses. It is a question, however, at this day, if they possess any marked advantages, on account of the small difference in the price of their product and that of the ordinary kettle sugar. An example in point may be cited of two plantations 44 miles above the city. One has been established within a few years by a new comer, who has spared no expense, and has put up steam works at a cost of \$40,000, making a crop of about 500 hogsheds. The other is an old place, having the ordinary open kettles. The first makes a refined white sugar, selling at 15 to 16 cents; the other makes sugar with the sulphurous acid which sells at 14½ cents.

It is not necessary here to give a particular description of their apparatus, as the history of them is well known and can be found elsewhere. But a few observations on the old plan will show that with the late improvements, it is sufficient for all practical purposes. Its simplicity and cheapness are a high recommendation for it. It is within the reach and capacity of all, and does not require special talents. The art of sugar making with it, is much more simple, and can be learned in a short time by such as have a taste for it. The improvement introduced in the use of sulphurous acid is a very important one. It arrests incipient fermentation, and improves the color of the sugar, making it of a light straw color; lime is used in connection with it for the purposes of clarification. This item of clarification is the most important in the manufacture of sugar in open kettles. This feature in the process of manufacture is distinguishable in the plantation above cited, whose sugar sold at 14½ cents. A large number of juice boxes is used, for the purpose of clarification, which gives time to the juice to clear by deposition before going into the kettles. The further process is well known that it requires no further explanation here, and knowledge of it is much better obtained by witnessing the practical operation.

The cost of a sugar mill, new, would be from \$4000 to \$5000, and a set of kettles, erected, about \$1000. These may now be obtained at much reduced prices.

I have given you above, Mr. Editor, some of my views of the sugar interests and sugar making in Louisiana, the mode of cultivation of sugar cane, and the results which may fairly be anticipated. These, when compared with the price of lands, are so astounding, that I feel some apprehension they may be considered visionary and conjectural. But, I have advanced nothing but real facts that can be substantiated and maintained. I challenge contradiction.

There is still another view to be taken of the matter. Unlike cotton and corn the, area of sugar lands is limited. In the United States some progress in being made in the production of sugar from Sorghum; so far, it does approach the production from sugar cane; whether it ever will equal it is a problem that can only be solved by time. In the Western States the attempt is being made to produce sugar from beets; there is no seeming reason why it should not succeed as well as in Europe, except it be the difference in the price of labor between the two countries; the culture of both is still in its infancy, and will require time to be tested and developed. The production of maple sugar is greatly diminishing. In 1865 the crop was nearly 50 per cent. less than it was ten years ago. Sugar can be produced in Texas, but the country is deficient in fire wood. The climate of Florida favorable for the sugar cane, but the soil is light, and does not compare favorably with Texas or Louisiana. The production in the West India Islands is gradually diminishing, and the present troubles in Cuba make it almost certain that the slaves will ere long be emancipated, and consequently, the production of sugar still further diminished. In the face of this, we have a greatly enhancing consumption, as the statistics of commerce will show. It requires but little reflection to see that the present enhanced price of sugar has not been caused by the deficiency in the crop of Louisiana since the commencement of the war. It did not then supply one-fourth of the consumption of the United States, and the price of sugar has increased elsewhere as well as in this country. The fact must be noted that within the last few years the consumption of sugar has largely increased in the arts and manufactures. Since ten years it is being used in Europe in the manufacture of wine and beer to a great extent. Then, we have on one hand a greatly reduced production, and on the other a largely increasing consumption. The presumption fairly arises that the price will at least be maintained, if not increased.

If the production is to be increased it is Louisiana that will be the field for it. She has the climate, the lands of unequalled fertility, the navigation, the proximity to markets, uninterrupted communications, with every country, and it will be her destiny to be the sugar producing country of the world.

2—MINERAL DEVELOPMENT.

We have received the prospectus of an enterprise organized under the auspices of responsible men, for the development of the gypsum beds of southwestern Virginia. These products are of inexhaustible extent, and of superior quality. The gypsum may be mined at a cost of 25 cents per tun, and delivered, ground, at any point within 700 miles, at \$20 per tun. With the demand furnished by the farmers of Eastern Virginia, and the ability to deliver along the line of the Virginia Railroads, we can see no reason why the short railroad of fifteen miles projected by the Company at a cost of not exceeding two millions of dollars should not be as profitable to the owners as advantageous to the public. Such are the measures which will alone attract and retain population in the Southern Atlantic States.

EDITORIAL.

SUGAR CULTURE.—We call the attention of our readers to the communication on the culture and manufacture of this valuable staple. It is from the pen of a gentleman, practical, well educated, and of great weight in our community. We coincide with him that there is no property in the United States which offers such inducements to the capitalist, as the sugar lands of Louisiana. The reduced cost of granulation occasioned by the simplification of the process of evaporation, may be accounted for, in part, by the increasing demand for such improvements as those advertised by Blymer, Norton & Co., in the REVIEW.

CARPET WAREHOUSE.—We believe the house of A. Brousseau & Co., to have been the first in the city to separate the business of wholesale carpeting from other assorted merchandise. In consequence it has been standing a long time, and has survived many of those equinoctial storms of finance which have sent so many excellent contemporaries to the bottom. Importing their goods for cash and dealing in the best times for all domestic articles in their line., Messrs. A. Brousseau & Co., have it in their power to do for customers all that experience, integrity, and capital can assure. We are satisfied that any lady or gentleman who will see the accommodating salesmen roll out patterns and fabrics of every variety, will find the field of selection as complete as they could desire, in variety of style, range of pieces, and quality of goods.

OUR acknowledgments to the publishing house of A. S. Barnes & Co., 111 and 112 Williams street, New York, for Worman's Grammar of the German language, published by them. To Messrs. Upkike Bain & Co., and Kercheval & Son, brokers, St. Louis, for circulars, and Messrs. Tinkham, Brown & Co., New York, produce brokers.

A GRAND REAL ESTATE LOTTERY.—Mr. O. E. Hall the well known and popular proprietor of the St. Charles Hotel, presents through the advertising pages of this number a scheme for the distribution of valuable real estate which must attract attention, not only because of the celebrity of the St. Louis Hotel, New Orleans, which heads the list; but because of the immense value, in detail and aggregate, of prizes he proposes to distribute. The St. Louis Hotel is one of the largest and most imposing structures of which New Orleans boasts, built with a reference to permanency and architectural arrangement and design which spared no expense, as may be inferred from its original cost—over \$1,000,000. All of the other prizes consist of choice and valuable property. Whilst we are not the advocate of lotteries, it is but just to say, that this scheme presents inducements which are hard to resist. The title to all the prizes is in Mr. Hall, who in the present stagnation in real estate is unable to dispose of properties of such large values, and being unwilling to carry so much taxes in these times of internal revenue, tape worms, tariff subsidies, municipal and financial intricacies, and reconstructed state governments with superstructed tax bills—resorts to this method of selling the same. Mr. Hall's known commercial integrity assures the scheme to be a fair thing, and guarantees that he will fulfil to the lucky drawer, every promise that he makes. Surely, to get a chance to draw either of these valuable prizes is worth the ten dollars which a ticket will cost.

OUR Exchanges will please change our address to New Orleans. La.

DE BOW'S

SOUTHERN AND WESTERN BUSINESS DIRECTORY.

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C

TO ADVERTISERS.—We have respectfully to remind merchants that the De Bow's Southern and Western Directory is a cheap and effective medium for coming before the public. It is an established paper which goes chiefly to Southern and Western readers. It thus differs from other directories, because it repeats the advertisement twelve times a year, and thus goes to a large extent into many hands. The price is reasonable, being \$125 per annum, per page, with proportional reduction of price as to space. One-fourth is payable in advance. We are printing and publishing the Review in New Orleans, and solicit the patronage of the merchants to the extent of the interest.